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Occupational Classification Systems Constructed for Application in the United Nations Programme of International Comparative Analysis of World Fertility Survey Data

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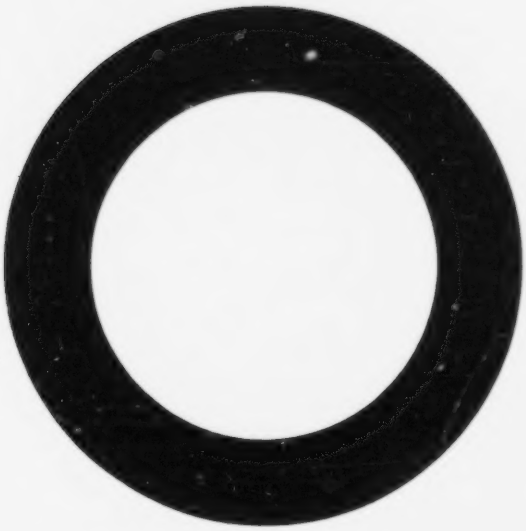

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Preface

This report was prepared in late 1979 and early 1980 and was based on the Standard Recode Tapes (SRTs) available in the Population Division at that time. Problems encountered with the data which limited this study in certain respects are now being corrected at WFS in London. Because this report was prepared before all corrections were made, the tables will not always be exactly correct, although in most cases the changes and corrections anticipated will only involve small numbers of cases. Because these changes will not affect the substantive conclusions of the paper, it was thought preferable to present the paper as it stands rather than to delay the consideration of the coding scheme until all the revised Standard Recode Tapes become available.

Introduction

On the World Fertility Survey Standard Recode Tapes (SRT) there are three occupational variables: respondent's occupation before marriage (or first birth in the Caribbean countries), respondent's most recent occupation since marriage (or first birth), and respondent's most recent husband's or partner's occupation. Countries whose samples include women who have never been married or in a union of any type do record a value on the occupation variable for those women who have worked, but this is not uniformly handled, nor does our analysis include such women.

The WFS recommended coding scheme as presented in WFS Tech.250, May 1976, No. 7, and in the Revision of Appendix 4 of the WFS Editing and Coding Manual, January 1978, is a ten-category system based on the ISCO developed by the ILO, and the COTA developed by the Inter-American Statistical Institute. This scheme was designed with the analysis of fertility in mind and, therefore, has attempted to separate groups in terms of skill, employment status and type of work. The nine WFS categories are as follows: (1) professional, technical, administrative, executive and managerial workers, (2) clerical and related workers, (3) sales workers, (4) farmers, farm managers and supervisors, fishers, hunters and related workers, (5) non-self employed agricultural and animal husbandry workers, (6) private household workers, (7) other service and related workers, members of the armed forces, (8) craftsmen and skilled and semi-skilled production workers and transport equipment operators, (9) unskilled workers and labourers. Agricultural workers were split into groups 4 and 5 in order to distinguish self-employed farmers from others. Service workers were split into groups 6 and 7 to distinguish domestic servants as a separate group. Production and transport workers and labourers were split between groups 8 and 9 to distinguish them roughly on the basis of skill.

Given that occupation is an important variable for the comparative study of fertility, why not deal with it as coded by the WFS on the SRT's? There are three principal reasons for devising a simplified occupational coding scheme for the purposes of comparative analysis. The first is that an analysis of cell frequencies reveals the fact that certain occupations have minimal representation in certain countries for either men or women. The second is that an analysis of the data has revealed that certain distinctions between groups such as the distinction between the skilled and unskilled and between self-employed farmers and others, while theoretically desirable, have not been achieved in practice. Finally, some countries have already reduced the number of occupational categories available by collapsing two of the WFS suggested categories into one, thus making the Standard Recode Tapes not truly standard across countries. These sorts of problems limit greatly the choice of classification schemes. Since

comparative analysis is forever plagued by small sample sizes, it is senseless to postulate a theoretically-based scheme that can be used for only some countries. That defeats the entire purpose of an "international" comparison. The coding scheme chosen had to conform to certain data constraints and at the same time maintain distinctions between groups that are theoretically relevant for fertility analysis. In the development of the coding schemes for men's and women's occupations, theory has provided the basic foundation but practicality has dictated a certain degree of flexibility in the face of data constraints. It is impossible to expect the classification systems so chosen to be entirely satisfactory for all countries and under all economic conditions. However, the systems presented here seem to be reasonable on the basis of several theoretically important criteria.

For comparative analysis an occupational classification scheme with as few theoretically relevant categories as possible seemed desirable. Therefore, a four-category grouping system has been adopted. Some suggestions have already been made (most notably by George Acsádi) as to how the WFS occupational categories should be regrouped. In his "Research Objectives and Hypotheses" (UN/UNFPA/WFS.II/16), Mr. Acsádi suggests the following three broad occupational groups for men:

Non-manual ("white collar") workers - WFS codes 1 and 2
Non-agricultural manual ("blue collar") workers - WFS codes 3, 6, 7, 8 and 9
Agricultural manual workers ("farmers") - WFS codes 4 and 5

He contends that such broad groupings are justified on the basis that developing countries are mainly agricultural. However, this is not exactly the case for either men or women in many of the countries on which this study was based (see footnote, p.3). Only three (Bangladesh, Indonesia and Thailand) have 50 per cent or more of their male labour force in the agricultural occupations and three (Sri Lanka, Thailand and Malaysia) have 50 per cent or more of their female labour force in these occupations. For this reason a three-way classification system seemed a little too broad. There are important theoretical distinctions among the categories included within the vast middle group that have to be taken into account.

The occupational schemes developed for respondents and their husbands have been motivated by different theoretical considerations. In the case of husbands, the occupation variable was seen as measuring socio-economic status in the absence of other related variables. In the case of wives, the occupation variable was seen as measuring the type of work she does - a rough indication of the opportunity costs she faces to child-rearing both at the moment of the survey and over the life-cycle. To develop a four-way coding scheme which captures the crucial distinctions between occupations in terms of type and socio-economic status, it was necessary to analyse the characteristics of the individuals found in these occupations. In the case of women, this was relatively easy because the SRTs provide quite a bit of information on the respondents' background. The analysis was more difficult in the case of husbands because there were fewer variables to work with.

The coding scheme was based on the analysis of 9 SRT's in the case of women and 10 in the case of men. 1/ Because the analysis of women was conducted first, there were fewer tapes available. At the time, the analysis of husbands' occupation was conducted, 12 country tapes were at our disposal, but two of them (Bangladesh and Pakistan) could not be used in this investigation at all due to problems of an undefined nature with both the husband's work status and husband's occupation variables.

Unfortunately, in neither case was the sample of countries on which these schemes were based representative of all the world's regions. The most dramatic and unfortunate defect with these samples of countries is the total lack of African data. It is altogether possible that particular patterns which are rather pervasive in other parts of the world, do not exist in African countries, and that completely new and different variable relationships occur. There is also very limited representation of the Middle East. The schemes presented here had to be based on the countries available at this time. It is to be hoped that the scheme will continue to be appropriate when data from more countries and regions of the world becomes available.

The coding schemes for men and women are remarkably similar but do differ in one crucial respect. In the case of women, the sales category is grouped with skilled and unskilled production workers, whereas in the case of men the sales category was included with household and service workers. This difference resulted from differences between men and women in the qualitative aspects of occupation which are relevant for fertility analysis. The schemes are as follows:

		Respondents	Husbands
I	Modern - white collar	WFS Codes 1+2	1+2
II	Transitional	WFS Codes 6+7	3, 6, 7
III	Mixed	(Blue collar) 3,8,9	(Manual) 8, 9
IV	Traditional, Agriculture	4, 5	4, 5

The most striking fact about both these schemes is the merging of the skilled and unskilled groups into one category. As will be seen more clearly in the detailed discussion that follows, these two groups were found to have remarkably similar characteristics despite the clear theoretical distinctions that separate them. This finding appears to be primarily due to the fact that relatively unskilled workers have been included in the skilled category thus reducing the homogeneity of the skilled group. In addition in certain countries, the skilled and unskilled categories have already been collapsed into one category. 2/

1/ For women: Panama, Colombia, Peru, Guyana, Sri Lanka, Thailand, Malaysia, Jordan and Bangladesh.

For men: Panama, Colombia, Peru, Guyana, Sri Lanka, Thailand, Malaysia, Indonesia, Korea and Jordan.

2/ For women in Jordan, Bangladesh and Guyana and for men in Indonesia and Bangladesh.

The report which follows is divided into two major parts. The first presents an analysis of respondent's occupations and their proposed four-way coding scheme and the second presents a comparable analysis for husbands. In each part, the relevant theory relating occupation to fertility is discussed first and then the characteristics of the individuals within each occupation are analysed with the relevant theory in mind. Finally the performance of the coding scheme is evaluated on the basis of certain analytical variables.

I. Coding System for Respondent's Occupation

A. Theory

A woman's occupation is not a good indicator of her socio-economic status for several reasons. First of all, not all women work and even those who worked may not have worked full time or many years. This alone makes the sample of working women atypical. Second, in most societies a woman's social and economic status is tied to her husband's. Third since it is common in many societies to find that certain jobs are not available to women, particularly those with the most prestige, women from all status groups are concentrated in a smaller range of occupations.

The SRTs give us far more information on the respondents than on their husbands, so occupation does not need to be used as a proxy for anything. Information is available on the woman's pattern of work, work status before and after marriage, and place of work since marriage. What can the knowledge of her specific occupation add to this information? Ideally it can indicate what kind of work she does or did do and this is important on many counts.

The new occupational coding system for respondent's occupation has combined the occupations available from the SRTs into groups on the basis of several criteria, all of which relate to the type of work the woman does, and the conditions under which she does it. Many aspects of women's work have been mentioned repeatedly as having relevance for the study of fertility behaviour. As many of them as possible have been considered in this analysis. Occupations were grouped primarily on the basis of compatibility with childrearing in terms of job functions and location, and the potential opprtunity costs of leaving the job, such as foregone earnings and earnings growth. But in addition the notion of "modernism", having to do with the relationships between occupations and a developing economy, was incorporated in the resulting scheme.

It is probably the case however that certain of these aspects of women's occupation are not consistent across countries, in that custom may dictate whether a woman can suckle a child on the job, while economic conditions and educational opportunities as well may influence a woman's role in the skilled or professional occupations. These important cultural differences must be discussed in subsequent comparative analysis but had to be overlooked at the time in order to construct any type of occupational classification scheme at all.

It is widely maintained that the more modern occupations are the least compatible with child-care, and, since they require the most training and presumably have the highest returns to experience, present the greatest opportunity costs to women leaving the labour force. Traditional occupations, on the other hand, are frequently compatible or even conducive to high levels of fertility. Women not only need not leave the labour force permanently in the event of a child birth, but can re-enter at will with few losses in terms of such things as seniority or level of skill, both of which might be important considerations for the modern occupations.

These two extremes of the modern-traditional continuum are not difficult to distinguish, either theoretically or actually. However, a system which is made up of the tails of a distribution, with everyone else lumped together in the middle, does not take advantage of the occupational detail available. Boserup has identified what she terms the "bazaar and service occupations" as an important middle group. 3/ Although her classification is really too broad, she makes some important points about what should characterize these middle occupations. These occupations can be viewed as transitional between the modern and the traditional. The transitional nature is due to the fact that the actual type of work the women engage in (household work, for example) is traditional in nature. The circumstance under which they do this work, however, is a gradual, but dramatic break with the environment of traditional women's work. Instead of washing and cleaning at home, the household worker may travel a great distance into the city to do this type of work for someone else. These jobs are created by the beginnings of modernization in an economy, and can often be a factor in rural to urban migration in developing countries. Any meaningful classification system, then, should include such a transitional group: one that is distinct from the modern occupations, but a major step away from the traditional occupations.

Another type of work that she includes in this group, but which should remain separate, is that which is less traditional in nature but more so than that characterizing the occupations in the modern sector. This type of work can be found in either rural or urban jobs that require a certain level of training or skill. Women might be more likely to do this type of work in or near their homes (i.e., growing or making things for sale, and then selling them in markets), than would the women in the transitional group, but there is an important connexion with the modern sector. This is because many functions performed by cottage industries in early phases of development are gradually taken over by the modern sector in the course of the development process. This is a rather mixed group, then, encompassing both traditional and modern jobs whose relative importance may vary greatly from one country to another.

3/ Easter Boserup, Women's Role in Economic Development, New York St. Martin's Press, 1970. See especially Chapter 10.

From this a four-category system emerges: modern, transitional, mixed, and traditional. These new occupational groups for women do not fall into any rank order with respect to job characteristics or a prori fertility hypotheses. They simply differentiate occupations on the basis of the above factors. Group I, called Modern, includes women who work away from home, are employed by someone outside the family, have made large investments in terms of educational attainment, and live in urban areas. The women in Group II (Transitional) work in jobs which draw women from the traditional into the emerging modern sector. They live in urban areas, are primarily employed by someone outside the family, work away from home using traditional skills, and have made little investment in education. Group III, Mixed, is comprised of women who are mostly urban, but who are just as likely to work at home as away. These women are also very likely to be self-employed and are fairly highly educated. Group IV contains women who work in the traditional, agricultural sector. These women live in rural areas, have very little education, and are likely to be employed by a family member.

With these characteristics in mind, the nine occupations were examined in depth in order to group them into these four distinct occupational categories. The correct coding scheme unfortunately could not be found by simply looking at a list of the occupations included within each WFS category, and deciding which are "modern" or which are "transitional", etc. Occupation was usually an open-ended-question on the WFS questionnaire. It was first coded locally within each country in any way they saw fit. This is understandable since WFS concedes that, "No single international classification of occupations is, or can be, adequate for all countries". 4/ When the SRTs were made, though, these country specific codings were regrouped to conform as closely as possible to the WFS recommended coding scheme. By reading the contents of each of the WFS recommended categories, a flavour for the type of work represented can be gleaned, but the precise type of work these people did in their jobs in any one country remains unclear.

Instead, the data were used to pick proxy variables for what have been identified as important characteristics of occupations. Then international patterns in occupational characteristics were noted. Because the coding scheme must be equally meaningful, for example, in Bangladesh and Panama, the intra-country comparison of the relationships between occupation and its co-variates was of paramount interest.

This investigation looked at six such co-variates. In addition to the occupational distributions themselves, women's residential and place of work patterns, her educational attainment and age, the continuity of occupational affiliation pre-and post-marriage, and work status were all analysed in terms of occupational differences. These variables are discussed in Section B. Some are primarily controls (type of place of residence and age, for example), while some could indicate career investments

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4/ WFS/TECH.250, May 1976, p. 73.

and opportunity costs (continuity and educational attainment), and others hint at child care incompatibility (place of work and work status). Both separately and in conjuction with other variables, these variables helped round out the occupational picture for each country, and in so doing, revealed patterns that are roughly comparable across countries. These patterns, then, were used as indicators and clues as to which occupations fall into each of the four suggested categories.

B. Respondent's Occupational Characteristics

Distribution of Country Samples by Occupation

Tables I.1-A and I.1-B of the Appendix I show the percentage and frequency distributions of women by occupation before and after marrriage for each country. The most striking thing about these distributions is their variety. The percentage of women who did not work before marriage ranges from 8.5 per cent in Thailand to 96.8 per cent in Bangladesh. This pattern is repeated for the distribution of women working after marriage, the corresponding percentages being 9.6 per cent and 86.5 per cent.

To some extent these differences are due to the fuzzy conceptual distinctions between unpaid family work and household duties. There were obvious differences between countries in where the dividing line was drawn, two extreme examples being Bangladesh where only cash work was counted and Thailand where all unpaid family workers were included. In addition, the WFS does not distinguish unemployed women from non-working women as recommended by ILO for census definitions.

Another interesting thing about these distributions is that there is quite a bit of variation among countries as to which of the occupations contain the most women. Generally these patterns do not change with marital status, except in the case of household work which often declines in importance after marriage. There is a large literature on the importance of private household labour in the development process, and the general thrust of these studies suggest that this type of work is typically done by young unmarried women, who do not pursue this kind of work after marriage. These figures tend to bear this out.

These distributions raise questions as to why certain countries collapsed categories on their SRT's. It does not appear that the reason could have been small cell sizes, since the resulting new categories contain, generally, very large numbers of women. If the categories were collapsed because one or the other of them had no meaning for that country, unfortunately, this was not noted anywhere. This type of coding puts severe restrictions on a new occupational classification, as was noted above, and makes certain countries less attractive for use in comparative analysis.

Residential and Age Patterns by Occupation since Marriage

Table I.2 of the Appendix shows for each occupational category the per cent of women who were living in an urban area. Here the occupation since marriage is relevant because the type of place of residence variable applies to residence at the time of the interview. There is, of course, some imprecision in this comparison since the latest occupation after marriage variable includes all women who worked at all since they were first married. Conceivably many women who are not currently working (but worked since marriage) may live in a different type of place now than when they were working. This table also shows the per cent of urban dwellers for the total sample, and the ratio (R) of each occupational proportion to this base level.

It is not surprising to note that the total per cent urban varies widely from country to country. Countries were left to their own devices as to the definition of "urban" for their own countries, so these statistics are not strictly comparable. It may be true that what is urban in one country would not reasonably be considered urban in another. However, if "urban effects" (i.e., the effect of being more or less urban than the average within the country) are assumed to be still equivalent, then this should pose no real problems.

The Professional, Clerical, Household, Service and Sales occupations tend to be far more urban than the sample as a whole for each country ($R > 1.0$) while Farm and Agriculture tend to be much less urban than the sample ($R < 1.0$). These patterns are true for all countries. No clear patterns emerge for the Skilled, Unskilled or No Work categories. The No Work group is interesting because in most countries the women who have not worked since marriage are more likely to live in an urban area than the sample as a whole. It may sometimes be the case that these women came into the cities when their husbands came for work, and have not themselves been able to find a job. Or it could indicate that it is the relatively well off urban women who do not choose to work. Although this table shows where these women live, it does not show where they work. Unfortunately, this information is not available on the SRT's.

It is interesting to note that urban living is not a prerequisite for employment in what we might consider the more modern occupations. In some of the more rural countries, large percentages of the women who work live in rural areas regardless of occupation. It is similarly of interest that in the more urban countries, non-trivial percentages of the women employed in the agricultural occupations live in "urban" areas (note particularly Colombia and Peru).

In table I.3 it can be seen that, within countries, the mean age of women varies across occupations. There do not appear to be any discernable patterns across countries in the age distributions, nor would such patterns be particularly important. What is important is that the researcher be

aware that, in any analysis using occupation as a variable, age must be properly standardized for. A distribution of children ever born by occupational categories, for instance, would be very misleading if the means were not standardized for age of respondents.

Educational Attainment and Occupational Continuity

Table I.3 also shows the rank order of occupations after marriage by the educational attainment of the women in them. A rank order of one means that the occupation had the highest mean education within that country. Only a few clear international patterns are in evidence. First of all, the Professional and Clerical women have the highest educational attainment, while the Agricultural women generally have the lowest. Farmers also generally rank low, but there are exceptions to this pattern. Some regional patterns in educational attainment by occupation can be detected. The Unskilled group tends to rank very low in the Asian countries, but ranks moderately high in the Latin American countries. The opposite pattern is shown for Household and Service workers: they rank rather low in the Latin American countries, but rank generally higher in the Asian countries. These regional differences may indicate cultural differences in the way particular occupations are viewed within the society.

The SRTs provide an occupational fix on each respondent for two points in time: before marriage and after marriage. The interval between these two points varies, of course, with a woman's marital duration, and the length of time since she last worked since marriage. Since such important variables as years since last worked, or number of years worked since or before marriage are not currently available, there is no indication of the duration of the work period, or the length of any gaps in this period. In addition, there is no information on how many times a respondent may have changed occupations. Nevertheless, if a woman's more recent occupation is the same as her occupation before marriage, this should give us some hint of occupational stability. This is important because by using occupation at all as a variable in fertility analysis, it must be assumed that occupation is fairly fixed over time. If it were a totally transient state, and if women drifted into and out of occupations rather randomly over time, the occupational variable would completely lose its usefulness as an explanatory variable.

Occupational continuity and change are shown in table I.4 and I.5 of the Appendix. The first table shows women according to their occupational status before marriage, broken down by their occupational mobility after marriage. For each occupation table I.4 provides the per cent of women in that occupation before marriage who (1) dropped out of the labour force after marriage, (2) continued in the same occupation after marriage, and (3) stayed in the labour force after marriage, but changed to the occupational category which drew the most women away from that occupation.

The identifying number of the occupation drawing the most women is in parentheses. At the bottom of this table, we show the overall continuity level for each country, which is defined as the overall number of women continuing in the same occupation as a per cent of all women working before marriage. Table I.5 shows women classified by their occupational status after marriage, and indicates for each category (1) the per cent of women who are new entrants into the labour force since marriage, (2) the per cent who were in the same occupation before marriage, and (3) the per cent of women in the occupation after marriage who came from the occupational category sending the most women to that occupation. The identifying number of the occupation sending the most women **is** in parentheses.

Low levels of overall continuity could indicate any one of four things, or any combination of them. First, it could indicate the random occupational mobility discussed above. Secondly, it could mean that there has been some sloppy occupational coding on the part of the countries and/or the WFS. This would spell about as much doom for occupation's role in comparative analysis as the first possibility. In this case the woman could be doing pretty much the same type of job after marriage, but it simply got coded as something different. The third possibility is that some occupations are prone to lower levels of continuity, and a low overall continuity level simply results from the fact that in certain countries women tend to be concentrated in such occupations. Finally, a low level of continuity could indicate that a number of occupations are marital status typed. Therefore, when marriage is used to delineate two points in time, continuity necessarily appears low.

As measured in table I.4, overall occupational continuity ranges from a low of 34.2 per cent in Peru to a high of 87.6 per cent in Bangladesh. The other countries under consideration all exhibit moderately high levels of continuity. The very low level shown by Peru is probably primarily due to a combination of the third and fourth possible causes stated in the above paragraph.

With respect to particular occupations, continuity could be thought of as an indicator of investments in a career, especially for some occupations. One might expect that those occupations requiring the most education or specialized training would have the highest continuity levels, and the lowest drop-out rates. Once a woman has invested a lot of time into such preparations, the opportunity costs of leaving the occupation would be high. Therefore, one would expect high degrees of continuity and low levels of drop-outs in the Professional, Clerical and Skilled categories. On the other hand a high level of continuity could also reflect the degree to which one's occupation is bound up with one's overall life style. A rural peasant woman, for example, would have to change her entire way of life if she wanted an occupation other than Farm or Agriculture perhaps. Since greater effort would be required for her to change occupations than it would for someone already free of this life style, one could expect high levels of continuity for the agricultural occupation.

These expectations tend to be supported by the data presented in table I.4. From the table it can be seen that the Professional, Clerical, Farm and Agriculture categories show the highest levels of continuity generally. Household, Service and Unskilled groups tend to have the lowest continuity levels. No patterns are really clear for the remaining occupations. With respect to drop-out rates, the pattern is by no means clear, either. These rates are generally low for the Professional category, and low for the Farm and Agriculture categories in countries where these categories make up a substantial part of the labour force (see especially Sri Lanka, Thailand and Malaysia). It is difficult to generalize about the highest rates, since patterns are mixed. However, there are generally high rates for the Skilled and Service categories. No other real patterns are shown.

As the continuity patterns in table I.4 would suggest, the Professional, Clerical, Farm and Agriculture categories receive the fewest new entrants into the labour force after marriage, as shown in table I.5. Continuity and new entrant rates could both be high in a category that increases significantly in size with marriage, but since these particular four categories do not show a consistent increase in size, (see table I.4-A) their high continuity rates preclude high new entrant rates. The Sales category, on the other hand, which shows a rather moderate overall level of continuity in table I.4, receives the largest proportion of new entrants into the labour force after marriage. Table I.4-A shows that this category increases after marriage in every country investigated.

The aspect of these tables, which has the greatest potential for helping with the task of occupational re-classification is the information about the "change" category, the category that women change into or change from. It is assumed that women themselves do not change appreciably with marriage (at least with respect to the skills and experience they bring with them to the labour market), and that if they change occupations, there must exist some sort of relationship or similarity between these occupations in terms of needed skills.

From the tables, however, it can be seen that such patterns are anything but clear-cut. Some of the more frequently occurring relationships are between Farm and Agriculture, and between Clerical and Professional. There is also a relationship between Household and Service in the Latin American countries but not elsewhere. Occupations with low levels of continuity tend to feed into several categories. This is especially true for the Household and Skilled categories.

Unfortunately, these figures provide little of value for occupational reclassification. There are too many statistical constraints on the "change" categories as presented in these tables. Categories with few women, or with high levels of continuity (especially when coupled with fairly high drop-out rates), will not show many women changing into another category, or coming from that category. Similarly, occupations which are large, or have low continuity (especially when they also have low drop-out rates) tend to flood the other categories (note particularly the Household and Skilled categories).

Either the theory about the meaning of occupational continuity is not sound, or the occupational structure in most developing countries is not as rigid as we might hope. It appears that women move rather freely between occupations for reasons that do not clearly emerge from these tables. However some occupations are more prone to this movement than are others, and this could be an important distinction.

Work Status and Place of Work

Table I.6 shows the per cent of women in each occupation who work away from home. There is substantial variation between occupations in the per cent working away from home. In addition, cross-country differences in these percentages for a specific occupation make one wonder just how comparable certain occupations are across countries. If only 33.3 per cent of the Bangladeshi women employed in Sales worked away from home, while fully 76.4 per cent of the Panamanian women with Sales occupations worked away from home, is it possible to draw any general conclusion about, for example, the incompatability of Sales work with child-rearing? Of course, it can only be inferred that working at home is more conducive to caring for children than is working away. But even if this is not a universal truth, it still appears that sales work is not as incompatable with high levels of fertility in Bangladesh as it is in Panama.

The next to the last row of this table shows the overall per cent of all women who worked since marriage that worked away from home. The country differences in this statistic partly reflect the fact that women's occupational distribution differs from country to country and different occupations have different place of work patterns. The last row shows the overall per cent of all women who worked away from home. A comparison of these two statistics is informative in that it adds to an understanding of the different meaning of women's work found in different countries. For example, even though nearly all women in Thailand work, only 24.8 per cent of all Thai women, whether they work or not, even worked away from home since marriage. In Malaysia, on the other hand, where 43 per cent of the women did not work since marriage (see table I.1-B), over 41 per cent of all Malay women worked away from home at some time.

Tables I.7 and I.8 of the Appendix indicate for each occupation the percentage of women who fall into the first and second most numerous work status categories. Table I.7 refers to occupation and work status before marriage, and table I.8 refers to the relationship after marriage. Since the work status variable was coded differently for nearly every country under consideration, the variable was regrouped into three work status distinctions: employed by family (F) employed by others (O) or self-employed (I). It is unfortunate that the distinction between work for cash and in kind was not made available for a sufficient number of countries. These tables illustrate several interesting patterns, both across countries, and across marital statuses.

In looking at overall levels (the bottom three lines in both tables), the first thing to be noted is the wide range of variation between countries in the distribution of workers by work status. Before marriage (table I.7) the per cent self-employed is fairly small for all countries, except Jordan, but the per cent family workers ranges from 74.9 in Thailand to 4.3 in Panama. This supports the impression discussed earlier that there may be differences between countries as to the definition of "work", especially before marriage. Another striking thing about these distributions emerges when the before and after marriage tables are compared. For every country, the per cent self-employed increases after marriage. For some countries this increase is quite dramatic. In Peru, for instance, the after-marriage per cent self-employed is four times as large as the before-marriage per cent. It appears that most of this increase is at the expense of the "employed by others" category, as the "family" group tends to remain fairly constant.

This overall pattern prompts a question: are women changing their occupations after marriage from those tending to be "employee" jobs to ones tending to be "self-employed", or is it the nature of the occupation that changes with marital status? The fairly high degree of occupational continuity already discussed for most countries provides a partial answer to this question. It is unlikely that women are changing occupations to the degree necessary to produce such large work status changes. A closer look at these two tables reveals that for most countries, the per cent of women in nearly all occupations who are self-employed increases after marriage. Note especially the Sales and Skilled occupations. In a comparison not presented here, it was found that family and self-employed women are far more likely to be working at home than are women working for someone else, irrespective of occupation. It can be inferred, therefore, that women (particularly in the Sales and Skilled occupations) who remain in the same occupational categories are more likely to be working at home after marriage than before marriage. This tends to suggest a molding of the work environment to fit the women's situation, especially with some occupations.

These findings indicate that it might prove important to any study of fertility using occupation as an independent variable, to distinguish whether a woman was in the same occupation after marriage as before, and whether she only worked after (or before) marriage. They also suggest that the place of work and work status variables must be included in the analysis as well, since most occupational groups do not come anywhere near to being homogeneous with respect to these important factors. In conclusion, occupation does tell something about the nature of the respondent's work over and above these other variables, but either all these variables must be included to render an accurate picture, or some sort of composite variable must be constructed to take all work characteristics into account simultaneously.

The New Occupational Coding Scheme

On the basis of the information provided by the above variables, it does seem possible to re-classify the occupational categories into the four basic groups suggested in the theoretical discussion, as follows:

Group I - Modern, White Collar Group. This group is made up of the Professional and Clerical categories, WFS codes 1 and 2. In this group, one would expect a high degree of incompatability with child-rearing, high returns to experience, and high opportunity costs in leaving the job, due to the high career investments required for this Group.

Group II - Transitional Group. This group is composed of the Household and Service categories, WFS codes 6 and 7. These occupations are a definite break from traditional jobs, but do not pull women as far into the development process as do those in Group I. These jobs should be fairly incompatable with child-care, but do not require as much investment, nor offer as great a return to experience as the Modern Group.

Group III - Mixed, Blue Collar Group. This group comprises the Sales, Skilled and Unskilled categories, WFS codes 3, 8 and 9. These occupations also contain an element of non-traditionality due to the nature of some of the jobs included in the core categories. The opportunity costs of leaving these jobs should not be great, nor should it be difficult to re-enter at a similar level. It is important to note that this group is likely to undergo the most change in its characteristics as development progresses, and, therefore, is also quite mixed in the context of cross-national comparisons.

Group IV - Traditional, Agricultural Group. This group contains the Farm and Agriculture categories, WFS codes 4 and 5. This group represents the traditional, non-modern sector. These occupations require little training or skill, do not take women far from home and do not expose women to any great extent to the development process.

In the discussion that follows each of the characteristics of these four groups will be reviewed with reference to table I.9.

C. Analysis of New Groups for Respondents

Table I.9 contains several measures to assess the feasibility of the new occupational groupings for eight of the countries considered. Due to the problems with most recent occupation for Guyana, that country could not be included in this analysis. The first group of these measures is made up of descriptive statistics, designed to illustrate the character of each of the new groups, and to show that each of these groups is indeed distinct from the others. The second group of measures represent the results of a very preliminary attempt to use the occupational groups as independent variables, using some important fertility related dependent variables. The table includes the four occupational groups, the No Work category, and the sample totals. All descriptive measures previously discussed are given for the occupational groups, while only selected measures are given for the No Work group and the total sample. A brief review of the definition of these statistics is repeated here because of limited space on table I.9.

Descriptive Measures

1. Per cent of Labour Force After Marriage: This shows for each country, the relative size of each group measured as a proportion of women working after marriage who worked in that group. For the No Work group, the percentage given is for those women relative to the sample as a whole.

2. Urban Ratio: This measure is a ratio of the per cent of women who are urban dwellers in the particular occupational group, to the per cent urban for the sample as a whole. For the sample totals, the per cent urban for the sample of all ever-married women is given.

3. Per cent Worked Away: This is simply the per cent of women in each occupational group who have worked away from home since marriage.

4. Educational Rank: Based on the mean years of education for women by occupation since marriage, the new groups were ranked, starting with the highest mean level.

5. Continuity and Shift: For the occupational groups, the continuity percentage indicates for the women in a particular occupation before marriage, the percentage who were in the same occupation after marriage. Occupational change is indicated in several ways. If women in a certain occupation before marriage showed a tendency to move into another occupation after marriage and/or if women in a particular occupation after marriage tended to come from a certain other occupation, that occupational group is indicated by number in the shift row. If no such shifts are indicated, N is shown in that row. If there are rather random shifts to and from other groups, R is shown along with the numbers of the groups involved.

For the sample totals, overall continuity is the percentage of women who were in the same occupational group (including the No Work group) both before and after marriage. It is a rough indicator of occupational stability for each country.

6. Before Marriage Work Statuses: The first and second most important (in terms of numbers of women) work statuses are shown for occupation before marriage. The per cents are followed by a letter which indicates which work status the per cent represents, based on the following code: (F) family worker, (O) employed by someone outside the family, and (I) self-employed.

7. After Marriage Work Statuses: This shows the same thing as the previous measure, but refers to occupational group after marriage.

Analytical Measures

8. Age at Marriage and Ratio: This measure uses occupation before marriage. For each occupational group, including No Work, the mean age at first marriage is given, as well as a ranking, 1 being assigned to the group with the highest age at marriage for any country. The ratio refers to a ratio of the mean age at marriage for the particular occupational group, to the mean age at marriage for the sample as a whole.

9. Survival Ratio: For women in each occupational group plus the No Work category, the ratio of children ever born to the number of living children is shown, following by a rank score. The lower the rank, the higher the survival ratio within each country.

10. Age Standardized Children Ever Born and Ratio: Using 10 year age groups, children ever born for women in each occupational group were standardized on the age distribution for each country sample as a whole. This standardized mean is given for each occupational group, along with a rank score for relative position within each country. The lower the rank, the fewer the number of children ever born. The ratio is a ratio of the mean number of CEB for each occupational group, to the average CEB for the country sample as a whole.

Group I. Modern (Professional and Clericals)

Descriptive Measures These statistics indicate that this group is remarkably uniform across countries with respect to Urban Ratio, Per Cent Worked Away, Education Rank, Work Statuses, and Level of Continuity. The relative size of this group ranges from 3.5 per cent of the labour force after marriage in Bangladesh to 36.3 per cent in Panama. Occupational change pattern show some variation, but some shift into Group III (Mixed) is indicated for most countries that show any shift at all. The women in this group, then, are relatively urban within each country educated, work away from home, tend to stay in the same occupation if they work after marriage, and are most likely to be employed by others, both before and after marriage.

Analytical Measures Women who are in this group before marriage have the latest age at first marriage in all countries. In all countries they also have the fewest children ever born. The survival ratio does not show a neat pattern, and is hard to summarize. In only two countries does this group have the highest survival ratio. It should be remembered that the No Work category is included in these analytical ranking schemes. We see then, that this group ranks below the No Work category in four countries (Colombia, Sri Lanka, Thailand and Malaysia), and is in fact the group with the lowest survival ratio in Sri Lanka and Malaysia. The survival ratio, therefore, does not seem to be a measure that distinguishes occupational groups from one another across countries. Perhaps this measure is too easily affected by country specific conditions to be relevant across countries.

Group II. Transitional (Household and Service)

Descriptive Measures This group ranges widely in relative importance from country to country. Generally, it appears from tables I.1-A and I.1-B that before marriage, this group is made up mostly of Household workers, while after marriage Service workers make up a large proportion of the total. The women in this group are very urban in all countries, and generally have a high proportion working away from home. If, as Boserup claims, these occupations serve as a basis for rural to urban migration, it appears that most women in these categories have already made this transition. It may be, of course, that the women who worked in these jobs before marriage were then rural dwellers, and that women in these jobs after marriage are primarily those who migrated into the cities.

This group ranks third in education in all countries except Thailand and Bangladesh. Occupational continuity tends to be low for all countries except Bangladesh. Occupational change from this group is into Group III in all countries where change is measurable. Work status patterns consistently show the vast majority of women in this group employed by others, both before and after marriage. This percentage, however, decreases with marriage in all countries except Jordan, with the self-employed component increasing in size after marriage in most countries.

Analytical Measures There really do not seem to be any patterns among the analytical measures, with the exception of children ever born. In all but three countries, this group has the second fewest children ever born, regardless of the fact that age at first marriage rank varies considerably for these countries. Survival ratio shows no particular international patterns, but for six of the eight countries the ratio for this group ranks below that of the No Work category for those countries (all countries except Peru and Thailand).

Group III. Mixed (Sales, Skilled and Unskilled)

Descriptive Measures Although the size of this group varies from country to country, it is never extremely large or extremely small. The women are mostly urban except in Bangladesh. About half these women work away from home, except in Jordan, where the percentage is less than 20 per cent. This group ranks second in education for all countries except Thailand and Bangladesh, where it ranks third. Continuity levels are fairly high in all countries. Occupational shift patterns are regional in nature. Usually it is in the Latin American countries where women in this group move into the Transitional Group (Group II), and in the Asian countries where they move into the Traditional Group (Group IV). Work status patterns appear complex from the table, but do show a pattern. Before marriage these women are primarily employed by others with a small component of self-employed, except in Jordan, where the self-employed component is the larger of the two and in Thailand and Bangladesh where there are no self-employed. After marriage, the self-employed proportion greatly increases for all countries except Jordan (where a data problem is suspected). Even in Thailand and Bangladesh where there is no self-employed component before marriage, there emerges a large proportion after marriage.

The rather moderate levels of continuity and the differences in the educational distribution, together with the change in the nature of the work status of the categories in this group makes one wonder whether these are really the same type of jobs after marriage as before marriage. The overall impression obtained is that before marriage the women in this group have one foot in the modern sector, working for others away from home, but that after marriage these women tend more toward the traditional, at home, self-employed type of work. On the face of it, it would seem that after marriage these occupations would not present women with particularly high opportunity costs for withdrawal from and re-entry into the labour force. However, it might well be the case that women in these occupations before marriage are sufficiently influenced by their foray into the modern sector, that their attitudes and behaviours are permanently changed from the traditional.

Analytical Measures Although clear patterns do not seem to present themselves, this group tends to hover more around the middle ranks on these measures than did Group II. Group II went from one extreme to the other, while this group is more uniformly middle of the road. Children ever born, especially, is quite close to the sample average for all countries, but usually slightly under it. The overall trend is for this group to rank third in number of children ever born. Age at marriage is always slightly higher than the sample average. The survival ratio for this group is less volatile than for the other groups, and is lower than the No Work group for all countries except Panama and Peru.

Group IV. Traditional (Farmers, Agriculture)

Descriptive Measures This group has the widest variation in relative importance of the groups. It ranges from virtual non-existence (3.5 per cent in Panama) to the overwhelming majority of working women (74.5 per cent in Thailand). This reflects in part the wide range of work definitions incorporated in WFS questionnaires. Generally, this group is the least important in the Latin American countries. Women in this group are primarily rural, and rank the lowest of all groups on educational attainment for all countries except Bangladesh. There is quite a bit of variability on the per cent who worked away from home, however, and no general statements can be made. Occupational continuity is usually quite high, with inter-group change primarily into Group III. Work status before and after marriage is primarily a mixture of family and employment by others, with family predominating for the most part. The only country which does not follow this pattern exactly is Bangladesh, which has a family component only after marriage.

Analytical Measures Again it is hard to summarize the statistics on age at first marriage and the survival ratio. On the average women in this group have a relatively early age at marriage, but for two countries (Colombia and Bangladesh), they have the rather late age at marriage, even above the sample average. Survival ratio rank fluctuates widely. For three countries it is very high for this group, but for three it is the lowest group. This group does, however, consistently have the most children ever born for all countries, except Bangladesh, where it ranks second.

Group V. No Work

Descriptive Measures The size of this group varies considerably, and is largest in the two predominantly Muslim countries of Bangladesh and Jordan. The urban ratio is interesting because non-working women tend to be mostly rural in Latin American countries and urban in Asian countries.

Analytical Measures This group has a uniformly early age at first marriage, although not always the earliest of all groups. It is always at or below the sample average, however. Children ever born rank fourth highest in all countries except in Bangladesh where it is the highest of all groups. Survival ratio is mixed, but it is never very low, and is the highest of all groups in four countries.

SUMMARY

The relative uniformity of these groups on the descriptive measures used in their formulation is to be expected. These groups were selected precisely because they seemed to be fairly similar across countries on these characteristics. The regional patterns that emerge highlight the importance of regional factors with respect to economic matters, but do not really suggest that these particular groups are not a meaningful way to classify the data. They suggest that the interpretation of these groupings might vary across regions.

The proof of the pudding, of course, is in the analytical measures, none of which were used in the construction of the occupational groupings. If children ever born is the critical variable, then these groupings have obviously proven themselves useful. Although some variation exists, for the most part we see that Group I has the fewest CEB, Group II the next fewest, Group III follows, and Group IV has the most children ever born of the groups. It should be noted, moreover, that Group IV has a higher number of CEB than does the No Work category for all countries except Bangladesh indicating that this occupational group might actually be conducive to high levels of fertility.

Age at first marriage does not show neat patterns with occupation before marriage, other than that the women in Group I consistently marry late, while the women in the No Work category marry about the earliest of all groups. It is not easy to distinguish the other occupational groups on this variable. It seems that working delays age at marriage, regardless of occupation. Only if a woman is in the most modern sector (Group I), is marriage uniformly delayed further. This particular finding might simply reflect the fact that these women have by far and away the most education, which might be a more direct cause of late marriage than their particular occupation.

The survival ratio is an intriguing variable, even if it does not particularly lend itself to generalization. What can be said is that women who do not work tend to have a higher proportion of their children living than do women who work. Among the working women, though, distinctions cannot really be made. It is interesting to speculate as to the causal direction of this work-no-work pattern. Is it that women who work provide less quality care for their children, thus causing a lower survival ratio? Or is it that those women who, for some other reason, bear a higher proportion of unviable children self-select into the labour force since they have fewer child-care responsibilities? It might be possible to investigate this question with more detailed work history information relative to the timing of births.

Since occupation is not hypothesized to act directly on fertility, but only through such intervening variables as opportunity costs, and changes from traditional attitudes and values, 5/ it is an important finding that these occupational groupings can be rather easily differentiated on the basis of age-standardized children ever born. This alone makes a very strong case for this particular classification.

5/ Perhaps the incompatibility of certain occupations can be thought of as having a direct effect upon fertility, but only in an atmosphere where women perceive of the option between working and childbearing. This already reflects a change from traditional attitudes.

II. Coding System for Husband's Occupation

A. Theory

Socio-economic status has been repeatedly shown to be an important variable in the context of fertility analysis in developing countries. The analysis of respondent's husband's occupation is based on the premise that this variable can tell us something about the respondent's socio-economic status. A man's occupation not only tells us what type of work he does, it gives us some indication of his and therefore his family's standing within the community. Educational attainment cannot tell us precisely about socio-economic status because two men with equivalent years of education may end up in different occupations for many reasons (e.g., luck, ambition, hard work, family connexions). There is very little other information about each respondent's husband on the SRTs, and such variables as household income, 6/ durable good ownership 7/ or other indicators of socio-economic status 8/ were included on the SRTs for only a few countries. Therefore, it is likely that husband's occupation will be the only variable related to socio-economic status that will be available for all countries. The following analysis, then, of a new, more efficient (in terms of the comparative research plan) classification scheme for this variable, was based on this underlying premise. A coding system was devised such that the occupational groups can be rank-ordered with respect to socio-economic status.

What are some of the characteristics of occupations that distinguish them one from another with respect to socio-economic status? Certainly earnings is the most obvious feature. If earnings were commensurate with the value placed upon their related occupations by society, then earnings might be the single most important characteristic of occupation. However, other intervening occupational characteristics are important in the determination of socio-economic status and therefore, its relationship to earnings alone is mitigated. Other such characteristics include working conditions, training, required skill, job security and modernization. Often strenuous or dirty jobs are not highly valued, and may even be denegrated by the society, regardless of how necessary the occupation is to the economy or how high its associated earnings. Occupations which require a large investment in preparation time might receive high esteem by the community. Similarly, occupations requiring certain fairly rare talents or skills might be valued. A high amount of job security might also lend prestige to an occupation. Finally, occupations associated with "modernization" and developmental progress might carry with them a certain amount of status.

6/ Sri Lanka, Thailand, Malaysia.

7/ Bangladesh, Korea, Sri Lanka.

8/ Thailand (Standard of Living Index).

In addition to the factors discussed above, there is an important cultural element to the notion of occupational status or prestige which affects the relationship between the above mentioned factors and socio-economic status. It is this factor that makes the formulation of an international occupational coding scheme very difficult. On the one and, a coding scheme must be comparable across countries, but, on the other hand, it must be meaningful within each country as well. A satisfactory compromise between these two goals is difficult for several reasons.

First, from theoretical standpoint, since these ten sample countries differ greatly as to the level of economic development, occupations which are closely tied to such development are likely to mean different things in different countries with respect to social prestige and economic status. Two good examples of these types of occupations are the Sales and Skilled categories. In a country with an extremely low level of development, the Sales category might consist mostly of peddlars, and the Skilled category might be made up of people closely associated with the primary sector such as forestry workers, stone cutters, tanners, blacksmiths, etc. In a more developed country, on the other hand, the Sales workers might be working proprietors of small businesses, or real estate salesmen. Similarly, those in Skilled occupations might be more closely associated with the secondary and tertiary sectors of the economy, such as electrical and machinery fitters, bus drivers or cinema projectionists. In addition, in a primarily agricultural economy, the amount of land a man owns may define his social prestige, while in a more developed country, this factor may have little relevance.

The second reason is of a more practical nature. There is little to go on with respect to indicators of social prestige or economic status on the WFS SRTs. Therefore, it is difficult to uncover these important patterns. An attempt was made, however, using the few countries mentioned above which have some supplementary social status variables, to undertake such an investigation. The results, although admittedly sketchy and preliminary, are discussed in section IIB.

With these qualifications in mind, a four-category system of occupational coding has been devised. This system consists of a modern group, a transitional (with respect to the development process) group, a manual labour group, and a traditional agricultural group.

Thus, Group I (Modern) is composed of men who live in urban areas, have high levels of educational attainment, are employed by someone outside the family, and have high incomes and standards of living. The husbands in Group II (transitional) are also urban dwellers, are either self-employed or employed by someone outside the family, have fairly high educational attainment levels, and high levels of income and standard of living. Group III (Manual) contains fewer urban men, most of whom are employed by someone outside the family. These men have less education, lower income and lower standards of living. The men in Group IV (Agricultural) are rural, have low levels of education, income and standard of living, and are primarily self-employed. The choice of occupations which characterize this grouping scheme was based on an analysis of their characteristics. The theory which lay behind this choice, however, is discussed below.

Group I, Modern - Professional and Clerical. The occupations in this group should represent the most modern sector of the economy. Men in these occupations should have a high level of training and skill as measured by educational attainment. These occupations should be highly valued within the society and therefore, characterized by higher earnings, more material possessions, and a higher standard of living. Other manifestations of the modern aspect of these occupations might include a very high proportion of urban dwellers, and a high proportion of men employed by someone outside the family. On the basis of such characteristics, then, it could be safely assummed that a fair amount of socio-economic status acrues to the families of men in these occupations.

Group II, Transitional - Sales and Services (including Household). The size of this group and the types of jobs included within it are likely to be strongly related to the level of development of a country. The Service occupations generally are not found below a certain level of development, and this segment of the labour force tends to grow in relative size as an economy develops. Although the Sales occupations are always present, they take on a more modern character as the economy progresses. Therefore, some variation would be expected across countries as to the socio-economic status attached to men in this group. Generally, however, there should be a strong link between this group and the Modern group. This should evidence itself in terms of a high urban ratio and a fairly high level of educational attainment for this group. Similarly, men in this group should have both a fairly high income and standard of living. Links with the traditional sector might be represented by a large proportion of self-employed men in the Sales occupations, although this characteristic also reflects the enterpreneural aspect of some Sales jobs.

Group III, Manual - Skilled and Unskilled. 9/ These occupations are more closely tied to the traditional sector, and might have less socio-economic status than the previous two groups. They would be expected to have a lower level of educational attainment due to the traditional nature of some of these jobs, especially at lower stages of economic development.

The proportion of urban dwellers could also be less than the other two groups, since these occupations are not as closely linked to the modern sector. As an economy develops, however, the nature of these occupations may change, and variation across countries should be expected in the characteristics of this group. Work status should be primarily employment by someone outside the family. The relatively lower status of the occupations in this group should be reflected in lower incomes and standards of living.

9/ We must note that two countries, Indonesia and Bangladesh, have not distinguished between Skilled and Unskilled workers on their SRTs.

Group IV, Agricultural - Farm and Agriculture. The size of this group, of course, is intimately tied to the level of development of the country, so we can expect a lot of variation on this score. With the possible exception of the most agricultural of countries, however, this group would be expected to have the lowest level of socio-economic status of all the occupational groups. Educational attainment, income and standard of living indicators should all be the lowest of the four groups. This might not be the case, though, in countries where an overwhelming majority of men fall into this category. In those instances, such things as amount of land owned or sizes of herds might be better indicators of social status than links with the modern sector. It is also not difficult to imagine that persons working on or owning farms might be far better off with respect to a measure such as survival ratio, than would be persons struggling on a low income in the cities. Another factor which may affect the social status of men in these categories would be governmental programmes of land reform. When large land holdings are preempted by the government, divided up and redistributed to the peasant farmer, the entire social structure of a country is radically changed.

B. Husband's Occupational Characteristics

The various characteristics of occupations with respect to socio-economic status will be discussed by looking at the WFS categories within the context of the proposed new groups. First, however, it is necessary to call attention to certain pecularities of the meaning of men's occupation as it is represented on the SRTs.

WFS suggests in its guidelines for the core questionnaire that respondents be asked the kind of work that their current or last husband (or partner) does or did do. In the event that he is or was unemployed or retired, respondents were asked to give his latest occupation. Statistics derived from such a line of questioning, therefore, do not reflect current labour market characteristics. Specifically, they tell us nothing about levels of unemployment, because only men who have never worked at all would be without a value on this occupational variable. Essentially, the SRT tells us the usual occupation of respondent's current or last husband, but not whether he is currently employed or not. This pecularity of the data should be kept in mind when interpreting the results of this investigation.

Distribution. Table II.1 shows the per cent distribution of men by occupational category.

(Professional and Clerical) [10/] - The Professional category is larger in all countries than is the Clerical category, sometimes considerably so. The Professional category ranges in size from 6.7 per cent of the male labour force in Colombia, to 12.8 per cent in Panama. The Clerical category

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10/ These two categories have been combined on the Indonesian tape.

ranges from 2.3 per cent in Thailand to 7.5 per cent in Korea. Both these categories tend to rank among the smallest in all countries.

(Sales, Household and Services) 11/ - The Household category is virtually non-existent in all countries except Jordan, where it comprises nearly 8 per cent of the labour force. The Sales category is fairly important in all countries, ranging in size from 4.8 per cent in Guyana to 11.6 per cent in Korea. The Service category ranges in size from 4.3 per cent in Thailand to 20.6 per cent in Jordan. Guyana does not include a separate Service category, nor are we informed as to which of the existing categories contains these occupations.

(Skilled and Unskilled) 12/ - The Skilled category is among the largest for most of the countries under consideration. It ranges in size from 14.2 per cent in Thailand to 33.6 per cent in Panama. The Unskilled category tends to be the smallest for all countries, ranging in size from 2.4 per cent of the labour force in Jordan to 10.8 per cent in Sri Lanka.

(Farm and Agricultural) 13/ - The sizes of the Farm and Agricultural categories vary widely. The Farm category ranges in size from 2.1 per cent in Jordan to 59.2 per cent in Thailand. The Agricultural category ranges from 3.4 per cent of the labour force in Thailand to 28.0 per cent in Colombia. This variation reflects not only actual labour force differences, but also country-specific methods of coding the occupation questions, such that the line between what type of occupation is "Farm" and what type is "Agricultural" is no longer as distinct as it was originally envisioned. 14/

These distribution figures are hard to summarize, especially since no regional patterns are evident. However, the virtual non-existence of the Household category for nine out of the ten countries considered should be noted. This is important because it is conceivable that this category could prove to be significant in some group of countries for which data are not yet available. In this analysis the Household category has been included with the Sales and Services primarily on the basis of its small size. This could prove to have been an incorrect designation when more information on this category of occupations is obtained.

11/ The Household category has not been distinguished from the Service category in Malaysia. All three categories are indistinguishable in Indonesia.

12/ As previously noted these categories are not distinguished in Indonesia.

13/ Guyana and Indonesia have combined these two categories on their SRTs.

14/ These descrepancies in definition will be revised by WFS in the future.

Educational Attainment. Table II.1 also shows the educational attainment rank of occupations within each country. Information from Guyana and Indonesia on this measure is not directly comparable to that available from the other countries since these two countries have fewer occupational categories to rank. The relative ranks of the occupations within these countries is still informative, but the absolute ranks would not be comparable. This must be kept in mind when considering table II.1.

(Professional and Clerical) The invariant pattern of educational attainment for these two categories is striking. The Professionals and Clericals are ranked first and second in educational attainment in all countries except Thailand, where their relative ranks are reversed.

(Sales, Household and Services) The Sales category ranks third or fourth in all countries. There is a hint of a regional pattern, in that this category tends to rank third in the Latin American countries (except Peru), and fourth in the others. A similar pattern seems to emerge for the Service category. It ranks third in all countries where this measure is possible except for the two Latin American countries of Panama and Colombia, where it ranks fifth. Only in Jordan are there any men in Household category, and it ranks sixth in educational attainment.

(Skilled and Unskilled) The Skilled category ranks fifth in all countries except the two Latin American countries of Panama and Colombia where it ranks fourth. The Unskilled category ranks sixth in all countries but Sri Lanka and Jordan, where it ranks seventh. Note that in Guyana, however, sixth is the lowest rank.

(Farm and Agricultural) No regional patterns emerge in the relative rankings of these two categories, and they tend to rank as the lowest occupations for most countries. In Guyana and Indonesia where the Farm and Agricultural have been combined and where there are fewer categories, this category ranks next to lowest and lowest, respectively.

Although Guyana and Indonesia tend to confuse the table, some rather clear patterns emerge. The first and fourth groups are fairly homogenous on this measure across all countries. In the second group Sales tends to rank higher and Service lower in the Latin American countries than elsewhere. This group, then, is more variable on this measure in this region than in the other countries. Similarly, the Skilled category in the third group tends to rank higher in Latin Americ . In general, it can be said that these groupings are a little more homogenous with respect to educational attainment for the countries other than Panama and Colombia.

Residential Pattern This measure as shown in table II.1, is the ratio of the per cent urban in each occupational category to the per cent urban for the country sample as a whole.

(Professional and Clerical) For all countries, the Professional and Clerical men are among the most urban of all occupational categories. This is especially striking in countries such as Thailand, Sri Lanka and Indonesia with a low overall level of per cent urban. Patterns in the urban ratio seem to be tied to the overall level of urban residence in the country, although this does tend to follow a regional line.

(Sales, Household and Service) The Sales category is also among the most urban for all countries except Peru, where it is about average. The Service category is also quite urban, except in Jordan, where it is more rural than the country as a whole. The men in this category tend to be relatively more urban in the countries with a higher level of per cent urban (except, of course, for Jordan), a pattern opposite from that shown for the Professional and Clerical categories. The Household category in Jordan is more urban than the Service category, but is still only about average.

(Skilled and Unskilled) The men in this category are quite urban in all countries, but no clear patterns are shown. Only in Jordan and Guyana does the Unskilled category tend to be more rural than the country sample as a whole and it is about average (which is very rural) in Thailand. The men in Unskilled occupations are usually less urban than those in the Skilled occupations, but this is not universally true. There do not appear to be any regional patterns.

(Farm and Agricultural) The Farm and Agricultural men, of course, are overwhelmingly rural in all countries.

Residential patterns are hard to summarize, but we see a general tendency for the first two groups to be more urban than the other two, with the fourth group being by far the most rural. This tendency is true for all countries, and no particular regional variations emerge. The one interesting pattern is that the first group tends to be relatively more urban (i.e., have a higher urban ratio) in those countries which have a lower overall level of per cent urban while the opposite pattern emerges for the second group. In general, then, the categories making up the proposed groups are quite similar to each other on this measure.

Work Status The work status patterns by occupation are shown in table II.2. Only nine countries can be used in the analysis of this variable. In order to make international comparisons possible, the categories of the Work Status variables have been collapsed into the following four:

(F) = employed by family member
(O) = employed by someone outside the family
(S) = self-employed with no employees
(E) = self-employed with employees (this is not possible for Panama)

The first and second largest categories and the per cent of men in them are shown in the table.

(Professional and Clerical) The work status patterns for these two categories are fairly constant across countries. Most of the men in these occupations are employed by someone outside the family. Among the Professionals, there are a few self-employed men, less so among the Clericals, where there are a few men employed by family members. No regional variation in work status emerges.

(Sales, Household and Service) The Sales category contains a large proportion of self-employed. There is also a significant proportion of men employed by someone outside the family for most countries except Jordan. Only in Panama and Korea, however, are the employed men in the majority. The Service category contains far more men employed by someone else, with very few self-employed men. This pattern also holds for the Household category in Jordan, the only country where it exists. There do not appear to be any regional patterns.

(Skilled and Unskilled) The Skilled and Unskilled occupations are made up primarily of men employed by others, but significant minority are self-employed. This pattern is true for all countries, and no regional variation is shown. There are, however, considerably more men employed by others in the Unskilled category than in the Skilled category.

(Farm and Agricultural) The Farm category is made up mostly of self-employed men, but several countries have a significant minority of men employed by others in this category (primarily Sri Lanka and Jordan). Since this category was defined by WFS as a self-employed group, the work status variation shown reflects variation in adhering to this definition more than actual differences in the work status of farmers. Similarly, for many countries (Panama, Colombia and Jordan) the Agricultural category contains a sizeable minority of self-employed men, while the majority for all countries are employed by others, as was suggested in the WFS guidelines. Two countries (Peru and Korea) show that an important minority of the men in agricultural occupations are employed by family members.

The work status measure does not appear to be very homogenous within each of these groups. However, the work status characteristics of each occupation across countries are quite similar. It is within groups that variation between occupations exists. The first group, though, presents no problem in this regard. It is hard to know exactly how this measure relates to socio-economic status, and, therefore, how much influence it

should have in the derivation of the occupational groups. The position taken here is that work status tells us something in addition to what occupation tells us, and should be used in conjunction with occupation. This will be discussed in more detail later in Appendix III.

For now suffice it to say that work status has not been given a very important position in the determination of the new occupational groupings. The lack of clear-cut patterns on this measure, then, were not considered of great concern. It is sufficient that there is little regional variation in the patterns of work status.

Special Variables

There are four countries that have additional variables on their SRTs which may help to determine if it is possible to rank occupations along some sort of socio-economic prestige scale. Thailand, Sri Lanka and Malaysia have income data available. In Sri Lanka and Malaysia the data refers to the income of the husband, while in Thailand it refers to household income. Thailand and Sri Lanka also have a "standard of living index" available. In addition, Malaysia and Korea have information about the ownership of household durable items, so that a "durable ownership" index can be constructed. 15/ Although these four countries hardly represent a random sample of all countries, a brief examination of the relationship of these "status" variables and husband's occupation should be helpful in differentiating occupational groups. Table I.3 shows the rank numbers of each occupation on education, income, durable ownership and standard of living for the four countries where some sort of additional information is available.

(Professional and Clerical) There is a fair degree of homogeneity among the rankings on the various measures, across and within these few countries. The Professional category clearly stands out as the highest ranking category, followed closely by the Clerical category. People in these categories have more possessions and generally seem to have a higher standard of living than people in other occupations.

15/ Construction of Durables Index: Korea - Using variables S401 through S409, an index of durable ownership was constructed. Since these variables are dichotomous on the SRT (1=owns, 0=does not own), they were simply added together for the index. The index range, then, was from zero (owns none of the items) to nine (owns all of the items). Malaysia - This index was formed using variables V26 through V31, V33 through V40. These variables are also dichotomous (1=owns, 0=does not own), so they were simply added together to obtain an index score. The index ranged, then, from zero (owns none of the items) to fourteen (owns all of the items).

(Sales, Household and Service) There is more variability among these categories, but on the average the Sales and Services categories rank third and fourth, respectively. It seems to be the case that men in the Sales occupations have a higher standard of living than their education would suggest, while the reverse is true for men in the Service occupations. This pattern holds for all four countries.

(Skilled and Unskilled) The Skilled category tends to rank fifth for all countries. Here it can be seen that the standard of living rank is more comensurate with the educational attainment rank, or at least no clear pattern otherwise is present. The Unskilled category tends to rank sixth, but is somewhat lower in Sri Lanka and Korea.

(Farm and Agricultural) These categories are clearly the ones with the lowest standard of living for all the countries. There is little variation within or across countries with respect to the several measures. The Farm category in Sri Lanka, however, ranks rather higher than in the other countries. Educational attainment and standard of living tend to be highly correlated for these categories.

It is truly unfortunate that this sort of information is not available for all countries. Although our occupational groupings tend to evolve naturally from these measures for the countries shown here, it is difficult to generalize from this small sample. This analysis strongly suggests, however, that the new groups do represent a fair picture of the structure of socio-economic status.

Summary

Based on the admittedly few variables available, it seems that the proposed new groups evolve in a fairly straightforward manner from the initial WFS categories. With very few exceptions the categories combined for the new groups exhibit similarities on the characteristics provided on the SRTs which are most likely to be important for determining socio-economic status. Although some regional patterns are indicated (primarily in the case of Panama and Colombia), there is quite a lot of similarity across countries on these measues.

Overall, then there is a good case for adopting the four category system proposed at the outset. There is enough evidence that the Sales and Services are different from the Skilled and Unskilled to warrant making two separate groups. A four-category system is sufficiently small to be easily used in cross-tabulations, and takes full advantage of the diversity of information potentially available from the husband's occupation variable.

C. Analysis of New Groups for Husbands

Table II.4 summarizes all the characteristics of husbands' occupation according to the new groups. These tables have two separate, but related purposes. First, these descriptive variables should distinguish the four groups rather conclusively if the notion about occupation as a socio-economic status indicator is correct. Only if the pattern is consistent across all the countries represented, will this coding scheme and its underlying assumption of status ranking prove useful. The other aspect of these tables is a group of analytic measures presented as a preliminary test of these groups as predictors of various fertility measures.

The one main problem with both of these sets of measures is that while the occupational variable refers to respondent's current or latest spouse, all of the other measures save husband's work status refer to the respondent herself. It must, therefore, be assumed that the respondent's fertility behaviour has been under the influence of the same husband's occupation throughout her childbearing years to the time of the survey. Obviously, women who have been married more than once do not fit this assumption, nor would women whose husbands have changed occupations over the years. On the other hand, it could be assumed that, even with a change of husbands or occupations, the woman has been under the influence of similar socio-economic status conditions throughout. By limiting the analysis to women who have only been married once would eliminate some of these problems, but at the cost of reduced sample size. For the comparison of respondent's age at first marriage, the analysis has been limited to only those women who have been married just once. Otherwise, all ever-married women have been included.

The various measures presented are outlined below. These measures are of two types, descriptive measures and analytical measures.

Descriptive Measures

1. Per Cent of Sample: This measure gives the per cent of all husbands who fall into each occupational category. Since the per cent of husbands who have no occupation is very small in all countries, this figure approximates the size of each group relative to all men with occupations. Men initially coded on the SRTs as being "unidentified" or "unclassified" on the occupation variable have been excluded from this analysis.

2. Urban Ratio: This is a ratio of the per cent urban dwellers for each occupational group to the per cent urban for the total sample. Since the variable used here is the type of place of residence for the respondent at the time of the interview, it is assumed that this also applied to the spouse referred to by the occupational variable.

3. Work Status: Here the two most important work statuses for each occupation are listed. A simpler, three-category recoding of this variable has been used to make the categories more comparable across countries. The categories are: employed by family member (F), employed by someone outside the family (O), and self-employed (S).

4. Educational Rank: Based on husband's education coded in completed years the new groups have been ranked according to mean years of education. In the case of Korea which does not have education coded in years, the mean level of education has been used.

5. Income and Standard of Living Rank: For the few countries which have such data, occupations have been ranked according to their mean scores on the standard of living index, or on a scale of consumer durable ownership constructed from the SRT. Husband's income has been used for Sri Lanka and Malaysia, and has been standardized within each country for work status. For Thailand, household income was used (not standardized by work status because of undefined problems with that variable).

Analytical Measures

6. Respondent's Age at First Marriage: For all respondents who have been married only once, the mean age at first marriage has been computed by occupational group of husband. The rank order of these ages is also shown starting with the oldest age (i.e., the oldest age would have a value of 1).

7. Children Ever Born: The mean number of children ever born has been calculated by occupational group, and has been standardized for marital duration within each country. The rank order of the mean CEB is also given, such that the fewest number has the lowest numerical rank. The mean CEB standardized for work status is also shown.

8. Number of Children Desired: For each occupational group the mean number of children desired has been standardized for marital duration within each country. Here again, the fewest number has the first rank.

9. Currently Using Any Method: For all exposed women, the per cent currently using any method of contraception for each occupational group has been standardized for marital duration, but this made virtually no difference in the values for any country. Here the first rank indicates the largest percentage of current users.

Group I. Modern (Professional and Clerical)

Descriptive Measures

This group ranges in size from 7.8 per cent of all husbands in Indonesia, to 18.1 per cent in Jordan. This group is made up of more urban dwellers than the other groups for all countries except Korea. For all countries, this group has the largest proportion of its members employed by someone outside the family. For a few countries, there is an important minority of self-employed men in this group (note especially Korea, Colobia, Peru and Sri Lanka). The men in this group rank the highest on educational attainment for all countries. For the four countries where there is income and/or standard of living measures, the families of the men in this group rank the highest of all groups.

Analytical Measures

For all countries, this occupational group shows the highest age at marriage of the wife.

CEB has been standardized within each country for duration of marriage. This statistic refers to all ever-married women. This occupational group has the fewest children ever born for all countries except Indonesia, where it has the most of all groups. 16/

The per cent of exposed women currently using any method of contraception has also been standardized for marital duration, although this made very little difference in these figures for any of the countries. The women with husbands in this group tend more often to be currently using a method than those with husbands in any other group. This is true in all countries considered.

The number of children desired has also been standardized for marital duration. This proves to be a more volatile statistic than either children ever born or per cent currently using. For seven countries (Panama,

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16/ According to WFS Scientific Report No. 3 (October 1978) entitled, "An assessment of the reliability of the Indonesia fertility survey data", this apparent anomoly cannot be attributed to data problems. Fertility and background data were found to be very reliable relative to other data checked. Summary analysis presented on the WFS Summary of Findings, (No. 11, October 1978) for Indonesia suggest that the positive relationship between fertility levels and such things as education and socio-economic status may be an artifact of past trends, not evidenced by younger women.

Colombia, Sri Lanka, Jordan, Thailand, Korea and Malaysia) women with husbands in this group desire the fewest children. In two countries (Peru and Guyana) they desire the second fewest, and in Indonesia, they desire the second largest number. It has already been seen that in Indonesia, women with husbands in this group have the most children ever born.

Group II. Transitional (Sales, Household and Services)

Descriptive Measures

This group ranges in size from 4.8 per cent of all husbands in Guyana, to 39.7 per cent in Jordan. This group usually has the second largest proportion of urban dwellers, but in Korea it has the largest proportion, while it ranks third in both Jordan and Indonesia. Work status consists of large components of both self-employed men and those employed by others. In five countries (Colombia, Peru, Guyana, Korea and Indonesia) the self-employed are dominant, while in the other countries, those employed by others are the largest component. For all countries except Indonesia, the men in this group rank second in educational attainment. Similarly, this group ranks second on the income and standard of living indicators for the four countries where this information is available.

Analytical Measures

The age at first marriage for women whose first husband is in this occupational group is not consistent across countries. For five countries, these women have the second oldest age at marriage, but for the other five countries it ranks third, although there is virtually no difference between this group and Group III in Malaysia.

Duration standardized children ever born, however, is consistent across all countries considered here. The women whose husbands are in this group have had the second fewest children ever born.

Similarly, for seven of the countries, this group has the second highest percentage of exposed women currently using any method. For three countries, however, this group ranks third on this measure (Panama, Jordan and Indonesia).

Again, the number of children desired figure varies widely. For five countries, however, this group ranks third (i.e., has the second highest number of children desired). It has the fewest in Guyana, the second fewest in Colombia, Malaysia, Korea, and has the most in Indonesia.

Group III. Manual (Skilled and Unskilled)

Descriptive Measures

This group is fairly large in all countries, ranging in size from 16.6 per cent of all husbands in Indonesia to 42.8 per cent in Guyana. This group generally ranks third in per cent urban, but ranks second for three countries (Jordan, Korea and Indonesia). Work status is consistent across countries, with most of these men being employed by someone outside the family. There is also a significant minority of self-employed men in this group for all countries. The men in this group rank third in educational attainment for all countries except Indonesia, where they rank second. With respect to the income and standard of living variables this group ranks third for all four countries with this information.

Analytical Measures

For six countries, respondent's age at marriage ranks third, or next to the youngest, and for four countries (Colombia, Jordan, Korea and Indonesia) it ranks second highest.

For all countries, though, the number of children ever born ranks third, meaning women with husbands in this group have had the second largest number of children ever born.

Per cent using any method is also second lowest (or third in rank) in most countries. In Panama, Jordan, Indonesia and Malaysia, however, the per cent using any method is second in rank.

For five countries, this group has the second fewest number of children desired. It has the fewest number in Peru, the third fewest in Colombia, Malaysia and Korea, and has the most in Guyana.

Group IV Agricultural (Farm and Agricultural)

Descriptive Measures

This group is generally quite large, and is the largest occupational group for seven of the countries (Colombia, Peru, Sri Lanka, Thailand, Korea, Indonesia and Malaysia). It is the smallest of the four groups in only one country, Jordan. Across countries, it ranges in size from 7.8 per cent of all husbands in Jordan to 62.5 per cent in Thailand. For all countries, this group is the least urban by a wide margin. For all countries except Guyana where the relationship is reversed, most of the men in this group are self-employed, with a large minority employed by others. Men in this group have the lowest level of educational attainment in all countries. They also have the lowest income rank and lowest standard of living score for all four countries that have this data.

Analytical Measures

Respondents with first husbands in this group have the youngest age at first marriage for all countries. In all countries except Indonesia, they also have the highest duration standardized CEB (in Indonesia, they have the lowest). Similarly, in all countries except Guyana and Indonesia, they also have the largest number of children desired. In Indonesia, they have the fewest number of children desired, and in Guyana they have the second largest number. In all countries, this group has the fewest per cent of exposed women currently using any contraceptive method.

Summary

Descriptive Measures. These measures tend to support the theoretical sketch of each of the occupational groups given at the outset. In Group I, men are urban, educated, have high standards of living and incomes and are predominantly employed by someone outside the family. Group II is made up of men who are a little less urban and educated than are those in Group I. These men also earn less money and have a lower standard of living. Although it is not always the case that most of them are self-employed, a large proportion of them are in all countries. Group III follows this group in educational, income and standard of living rank. It is also a little less urban. Most men in this group are employed by someone outside the family, but there is an important minority of self-employed men in this group for all countries. Group IV clearly represents the traditional sector, ranking lowest on education, income and standard of living for all countries. It is also by far the most rural. For most countries this group is made up predominantly of men who are self-employed, with a large minority of men employed by someone outside the family.

All these patterns are remarkably consistent across countries. This would seem to indicate that ranking the occupations in this manner is meaningful even though it was developed on the basis of so few variables which often have admittedly ambiguous links to the socio-economic dimensions of occupation, developed at the beginning of this section.

Analytical Measures. These measures are not as easy to summarize as were the descriptive measures, but the patterns for both Group I and Group IV are clear. The women with husbands in Group I have the latest age at marriage and the fewest children ever born across all countries, except for Indonesia. They also tend to have the smallest number of desired children, and are the most likely to be currently using some method of contraception. The women with husbands in Group IV clearly fall at the other end of the spectrum. They have the youngest age at marriage, most children ever born, most children desired and smallest per cent using contraception.

The patterns in Group II are not without exception, but generally these women got married younger than those with husbands in Group I, have more children ever born, and are less likely to be using contraception. Not much can be said, however, about number of children desired. The Group III women tend to marry at yet younger ages than those in Group II, have more children, and be less likely to be using contraception, although these patterns are not without exception.

In conclusion, it appears that socio-economic status tends to be reflected in the fertility behaviour, but that it does not influence all fertility measures in the same way. Nor, would it seem, that the within-country patterns are always the same. Although occupations have been ranked according to some rough scale of socio-economic status that seems to work well for all countries considered, this ranking has not produced clear-cut patterns in fertility across countries. These patterns, of course, will have to be investigated in much more detail in future analysis.

APPENDIX I

Tables for Part I on Respondents' Occupation

APPENDIX I

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Table I.1-A Distribution of women[a] by occupation before marriage, as raw numbers, percentages of all women in the sample, and of all working women

Occupation	Panama[b]	Colombia[b]	Peru	Guyana	Sri Lanka	Thailand	Malaysia	Jordan[c]	Bangladesh
Professional									
N	185	146	221	142	217	99	193	152	8
Per cent all	5.8	4.4	3.9	4.5	3.2	2.6	3.1	4.2	0.1
Per cent working	9.9	8.6	5.4	12.5	10.3	2.8	5.9	22.6	3.9
Clerical									
N	292	178	344	132	75	56	155	31	0
Per cent all	9.1	5.4	6.1	4.2	1.1	1.5	2.5	0.9	0.0
Per cent working	15.6	10.5	8.4	11.6	3.6	1.6	4.8	4.6	
Sales									
N	194	187	403	114	32	250	89	1	3
Per cent all	6.1	5.7	7.1	3.6	0.5	6.5	1.4	0.0	0.0
Per cent working	10.4	11.0	10.1	10.0	1.5	7.2	2.7	0.1	1.5
Farm									
N	11	4	23	[d]	424	2519	121	1	27
Per cent all	0.3	0.1	0.4	[d]	6.2	65.9	1.9	0.0	0.4
Per cent working	0.6	0.2	0.6	[d]	20.1	72.0	3.7	0.1	13.0
Agricultural									
N	30	135	1334	17.5 [d]	653	114	1726	293	5
Per cent all	0.9	4.1	23.7	5.5 [d]	9.6	3.0	27.3	8.1	0.1
Per cent working	1.6	8.0	34.0	15.5 [d]	30.9	3.3	53.1	43.5	2.4
Household									
N	839	553	927	352 [e]	32	37	32.6[f]	3	79
Per cent all	26.2	16.7	16.4	11.1 [e]	0.5	1.0	5.2[f]	0.1	1.2
Per cent working	44.8	32.6	24.1	30.9 [e]	1.5	1.1	10.0[f]	0.4	38.2

Table I.1-A (continued)

Occupation	Panama[b]	Colombia[b]	Peru	Guyana	Sri Lanka	Thailand	Malaysia	Jordan[c]	Bangladesh
Service									
N	196	115	116	e/	9	61	f/	19	3
Per cent all	6.1	3.5	2.1	e/	0.1	1.6	f/	0.5	0.0
Per cent working	10.5	6.8	3.0	e/	0.4	1.7	f/	2.8	1.5
Skilled									
N	109	316	441	108	599	295	531	173	80 g/
Per cent all	3.4	9.6	7.8	3.4	8.8	7.7	8.4	4.8	1.2 g/
Per cent working	5.8	18.6	11.3	9.5	28.3	8.4	16.3	25.7	38.7 g/
Unskilled									
N	16	63	118	109	73	66	99	h/	g/
Per cent all	0.5	1.9	2.1	3.5	1.1	1.7	1.6	h/	g/
Per cent working	0.9	3.7	2.9	9.6	3.5	1.9	3.0	h/	g/
Unidentified[i]									
N			8	7			6		2
Per cent all			0.1	0.2			0.1		0.0
Per cent working			0.2	0.6			0.2		1.0
No work									
N	1331	1604	1704	2024	4695	323	3071	2939	6308
Per cent all	41.6	48.6	30.4	64.0	68.9	8.5	48.6	81.4	96.8
N	3203	3302	5640	3616	6810	3820	6321	3612	6515

Notes:

a/ The base population for all these tables is ever married women. In countries where non married women were included on the SRT, these women have not beenlincluded in this investigation.

b/ Only ever-married women have been included.

c/ We are not sure at the present time exactly how the Jordan occupational variables were coded. We are suspicious of the decidedly tri-modal occupational distributions and think it reflects the fact that occupational information for women was initially obtained in less detail, even than the nine WFS recommended categories. Therefore, we have reservations about the direct comparability of the Jordan data with those of the other countries included in this investigation. Although we have included Jordan, albeit marginally, it is with the caveat that we do not have complete confidence in the data.

d/ The category "Farm" does not appear on the Guyana SRT. We have assumed that it was included in the "Agricultural" category, although the data documentation for the SRT do not explicitly state that this was the case.

e/ The category "Service" does not appear on the Guyana SRT, for occupation before first birth, nor does the data documentation explain where this occupational group has been included. We have assumed that they were included in the Household Worker category.

f/ Malaysis does not have an SRT, and the categories were formed by us from the raw data tape. The tape used a three digit version of the ISCO, and it was not possible to distinguish private household workers from general service workers with only three digits of the ISCO, so these categories were necessarily collapsed.

g/ On the Bangladesh SRT the categories of Skilled and Unskilled were collapsed. We do not know why this was done.

h/ The "Unskilled" category does not appear on the Jordan SRT. Since we do not have the data documentation at the present time, we do not know if they were included in some other category, or if there were simply no women in this occupational group.

i/ The "Unidentified" or "Unclassified" category was included on some of the SRT's. We have shown it on the tables, but have not included these women in the final new occupational groupings. There was simply no basis on which to put them in one group or another. Rarely are they a significant part of the occupational distribution.

Table I.1-B. **Distribution of women[a] by occupation after marriage, as raw numbers, percentages of all women in the sample, and as percentages of all working women**

Occupation	Panama[b]	Colombia[b]	Peru	Guyana	Sri Lanka	Thailand	Malaysia	Jordan[c]	Bangladesh
Professional									
N	269	135	229	175	197	92	182	134	30
Per cent all	8.4	4.1	4.1	4.8	2.9	2.4	2.9	3.7	0.5
Per cent working	15.8	9.4	6.2	9.6	7.8	2.7	6.3	26.2	3.4
Clerical									
N	349	109	185	225	57	57	111	21	1
Per cent all	10.9	3.3	3.3	6.2	0.8	1.5	1.7	0.6	0.0
Per cent working	20.5	7.6	5.2	12.3	2.3	1.7	3.1	4.1	0.1
Sales									
N	212	207	793	299	102	408	286	10	35
Per cent all	6.6	6.3	14.1	8.3	1.5	10.7	4.5	0.3	0.5
Per cent working	12.5	14.4	22.1	16.4	3.0	11.9	7.9	2.0	4.0
Farm									
N	10	34	1092	700 [d]	737	2369	376	3	59
Per cent all	0.3	1.0	19.4	19.4 [d]	10.8	62.0	5.9	0.1	0.9
Per cent working	0.6	2.4	32.3	38.4 [d]	29.1	68.6	10.4	0.6	6.7
Agriculture									
N	49	115	185	[d]	825	156	1825	194	10
Per cent all	1.5	3.5	3.3	[d]	12.1	4.1	28.7	5.4	0.2
Per cent working	2.9	8.0	4.8	[d]	32.5	4.5	50.3	38.0	1.1
Household									
N	352	279	204	420 [e/f]	63	13	315 [g]	2	372
Per cent all	11.0	8.4	3.6	11.6 [e/f]	0.9	0.3	4.9[g]	0.1	5.7
Per cent working	20.7	19.4	5.8	23.0 [e/f]	2.5	0.4	8.7[g]	0.4	42.2

Table I.1-B (continued)

Occupation	Panama[b]	Colombia[b]	Peru	Guyana	Sri Lanka	Thailand	Malaysia	Jordan[c]	Bangladesh
Service									
N	304	227	242	e/ f/	18	61	g/	22	15
Per cent all	9.5	6.9	4.3	e/ f/	0.3	1.6	g/	0.6	0.2
Per cent working	17.9	15.8	6.8	e/ f/	0.7	1.8	g/	4.3	1.7
Skilled									
N	135	297	504	f/	360	250	400	123	33.7 i/
Per cent all	4.2	9.0	8.9	f/	5.3	6.5	6.3	3.4	5.2 i/
Per cent working	7.9	20.6	14.8	f/	14.2	7.2	11.0	24.1	38.3 i/
Unskilled									
N	22	37	76	f/	178	47	79	h/	i/
Per cent all	0.7	1.1	1.3	f/	2.6	1.2	1.2	h/	i/
Per cent working	1.3	2.6	2.0	f/	7.0	1.4	22	h/	i/
Unidentified j/									
N			4	4			9		22
Per cent all			0.1	0.1			0.1		0.3
Per cent working			0.1	0.2			0.3		2.5
No work									
N	1501	1862	2125	1795	4273	367	2738	3101	5634
Per cent all	46.9	56.4	37.0	49.6	62.7	9.6	43.0	85.9	86.5

Notes:

a/ The base population for all these tables is ever married women. In countries where non-married women were included on the SRT, these women have not been included in this investigation.

b/ Only ever-married women have been included.

c/ We are not sure at the present time exactly how the Jordan occupational variables were coded. We are suspicious of the decidedly tri-modal occupational distributions and think it reflects the fact that occupational information for women was initially obtained in less detail, even, than the nine WFS recommended categories. Therefore, we have reservations about the direct comparability of the Jordan data with those of the other countries included in this investigation. Although we have included Jordan, albeit marginally, it is with the caveat that we do not have complete confidence in the data.

d/ The category "Farm" does not appear on the Guyana SRT. We have assumed that it was included in the "Agricultural" category, although the data documentation for the SRT do not explicitly state that this was the case.

e /The category "Service" does not appear on the Guyana SRT for occupation before first birth, nor does the data documentation explain where this occupational group has been included. We have assumed that they were included in the Household Worker category.

f/ The three categories of Service, Skilled and Unskilled do not appear on the Guyana SRT for most recent occupation. Since all women who have not had a birth are listed as having the same occupation on both occupational variables (that is, women with an occupational code on "occupation before first birth" are again listed as having that same occupation on the "most recent occupation" variable), it is unclear what happened to the women who were coded in the Skilled and Unskilled categories on the occupation before first birth variable. We feel that they were all included in the Household Worker category, based on a perusal of the cross tabulation of the two occupational variables. This Household Work category, then, becomes a meaningless category for the most recent occupation variable. Due to this confusing data problem, Guyana has not been included in the subsequent discussion of the new occupation groups. It has been included in these tables, however, since some of the occupational categories are clean. (We have recently received notification not to use this variable.)

g/ Malaysia doe not have an SRT, and the categories were formed by us from the raw data tape. The tape used a three digit version of the ISCO, and it was not possible to distinguish private household workers from general service workers with only three digits of the ISCO, so these categories were necessarily collapsed.

h/ The "Unskilled" category does not appear on the Jordan SRT. Since we do not have the data documentation at the present time, we do not know if they were included in some other category, or if there were simply no women in this occupational group.

i/ On the Bangladesh SRT the categories of Skilled and Unskilled were collapsed. We do not know why this was done.

1/ The "Unidentified" or "Unclassified" category was included on some of the SRT's. We have shown it on the tables, but have not included these women in the final new occupational groupings. There was simply no basis on which to put them in one group or another. Rarely are they a significant part of the occupational distribution.

Table I.2 Per cent of women[a] currently living in an urban area by occupation after marriage, and the ratio of this percentage to the per cent urban in the sample

Occupation	Panama[b]	Colombia[b]	Peru	Guyana	Sri Lanka	Thailand	Malaysia	Jordan[c]	Bangladesh
Professional									
Per cent	79.9	82.8	95.5	61.1	36.4	60.9	61.0	96.3	36.8
R	1.38	1.29	1.48	1.69	1.98	4.01	1.97	1.37	4.66
Clerical									
Per cent	90.0	98.2	97.4	72.4	31.1	80.7	64.9	100.0	100.0
R	1.55	1.53	1.51	2.00	1.69	5.31	2.10	1.43	12.66
Sales									
Per cent	77.8	88.9	90.7	37.0	32.5	39.2	46.9	79.1	8.8
R	1.34	1.38	1.41	1.02	1.77	2.58	1.52	1.13	1.11
Farmer									
Per cent	20.0*	14.7*	18.8	d/	0.7*	1.4	7.2	31.2	0
R	0.34	0.23	0.29	d/	0.04	0.09	0.23	0.45	0
Agricultural									
Per cent	4.1*	14.8	40.1	31.9 d/	1.2	4.5*	8.0	16.1	3.5*
R	0.07	0.23	0.62	0.88 d/	0.07	0.30	0.26	0.23	0.44
Household									
Per cent	61.1	66.1	91.3	57.6 e/f/	45.7	61.5*	61.3 g/	100.0	12.5
R	1.05	1.03	1.42	1.59 e/f/	2.48	4.05	1.98 g/	1.43	1.58
Service									
Per cent	70.1	84.1	88.5	e/f/	22.4*	60.7	g/	85.4	27.9
R	1.21	1.31	1.37	e/f/	1.22	3.99	g/	1.22	3.53

Table I.2 (continued)

Occupation	Panama[b]	Colombia[b]	Peru	Guyana	Sri Lanka	Thailand	Malaysia	Jordan[c]	Bangladesh
Skilled									
Per cent	74.1	80.1	64.5	-	19.7	33.6	45.8	82.2	4.6 [i]
R	1.28	1.25	1.00		1.07	2.21	1.48	1.17	0.58 [i]
Unskilled									
Per cent	86.4	86.5	65.6	-	13.8	12.8*	36.7	[h]	[i]
R	1.49	1.35	1.02		0.75	0.84	1.19	[h]	[i]
Unidentified [j]									
Per cent	-	-	100.0	-	-	-	44.4		6.4
R			1.55				1.44		0.81
No Work									
Per cent	41.0	56.7	69.3	25.8	24.7	38.7	39.2	71.6	7.7
R	0.71	0.88	1.08	0.71	1.34	2.55	1.27	1.02	0.97
Total Sample									
Per cent	58.1	64.3	64.4	36.2	18.4	15.2	30.9	70.1	7.9

* Based on less than 20 women.

Notes:

a/ The base population for all these tables is ever married women. In countries where non-married women were included on the SRT, these women have not been included in this investigation.

b/ Only ever-married women have been included.

c/ We are not sure at the present time exactly how the Jordan occupational variables were coded. We are suspicious of the decidedly tri-modal occupational distributions and think it reflects the fact that occupational information for women was initially obtained in less detail, even, than the nine WFS recommended categories. Therefore, we have reservations about the direct comparability of the Jordan data with those of the other countries included in this investigation. Although we have included Jordan, albeit marginally, it is with the caveat that we do not have complete confidence in the data.

d/ The category "Farm" does not appear on the Guyana SRT. We have assumed that it was included in the "Agricultural" category, although the data documentation for the SRT do not explicitly state that this was the case.

e/ The category "Service" does not appear on the Guyana SRT for occupation before first birth, nor does the data documentation explain where this occupational group has been included. We have assumed that they were included in the Household Worker category.

f/ The three categories of Service, Skilled and Unskilled do not appear on the Guyana SRT for most recent occupation. Since all women who have not had a birth are listed as having the same occupation on both occupational variables (that is, women with an occupational code on "occupation before first birth" are again listed as having that same occupation on the "most recent occupation" variable), it is unclear what happened to the women who were coded in the Skilled and Unskilled categories on the occupation before first birth variable. We feel that they were all included in the Household Worker category, based on a perusal of the cross tabulation of the two occupational variables. This Household Work category, then, becomes a meaningless category for the most recent occupation variable. Due to this confusing data problem, Guyana has not been included in the subsequent discussion of the new occupation groups. It has been included in these tables, however, since some of the occupational categories are clean.

g/ Malaysia doe not have an SRT, and the categories were formed by us from the raw data tape. The tape used a three digit version of the ISCO, and it was not possible to distinguish private household workers from general service workers with only three digits of the ISCO, so these categories were necessarily collapsed.

h/ The "Unskilled" category does not appear on the Jordan SRT. Since we do not have the data documentation at the present time, we do not know if they were included in some other category, or if there were simply no women in this occupational group.

i/ On the Bangladesh SRT the categories of Skilled and Unskilled were collapsed. We do not know why this was done.

Table I.2 (continued)

1/ The "Unidentified" or "Unclassified" category was included on some of the SRT's. We have shown it on the tables, but have not included these women in the final new occupational groupings. There was simply no basis on which to put them in one group or another. Rarely are they a significant part of the occupational distribution.

Table I.3 Educational attainment rank and mean age for women [a] by occupation after marriage

Occupation	Panama [b]	Colombia [b]	Peru	Guyana	Sri Lanka	Thailand	Malaysia	Jordan [c]	Bangladesh
Professional									
educational rank	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2
age	33.1	32.4	34.5	30.1	37.2	33.3	33.5	30.8	31.4
Clerical									
educational rank	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	1
age	31.1	28.1	30.7	27.6	32.0	32.5	29.9	30.3	32.3
Sales									
educational rank	4	5	5	4	4	6	4	4	5
age	33.4	32.9	33.4	33.3	36.7	34.4	36.6	34.1	32.5
Farm									
educational rank	9	9	9	[d]	6	7	9	7	7
age	36.3	35.1	34.4	[d]	34.5	33.0	37.5	30.1	32.5
Agriculture									
educational rank	8	8	10	5 [d]	9	9	7	8	9
age	35.0	35.9	34.7	34.2 [d]	34.4	33.9	34.7	33.2	28.4
Household									
educational rank	7	7	8	3 [e/f]	5	4	5 [g]	3	4
age	32.8	31.7	30.4	33.4 [e/f]	38.6	34.3	35.9 [g]	34.2	30.8
Service									
educational rank	6	6	7	[e/f]	7	3	[g]	6	3
age	35.7	34.5	35.4	[e/f]	38.9	33.4	[g]	34.3	27.0

Table I.3 (continued)

Occupation	Panama[b]	Colombia[b]	Peru	Guyana	Sri Lanka	Thailand	Malaysia	Jordan[c]	Bangladesh
Skilled									
educational rank	5	3	4		3	5	3	5	6[h]
age	34.1	33.2	33.1		33.5	31.3	32.9	33.5	31.0[h]
Unskilled									
educational rank	3	4	6		8	8	8	[h]	[i]
age	34.9	33.1	33.0		36.4	30.8	36.3	[h]	[i]
Unidentified[j]									
educational rank			3*				6		8
age			40.8	32.5			37.2		33.9
No work									
age	32.3	31.3	30.5	29.4	33.2	29.4	31.7	31.0	27.6
Sample mean age	32.8	32.0	32.5	31.0	33.9	32.7	33.5	31.2	28.1

* Based on less than 20 women.

Notes:

a/ The base population for all these tables is ever married women. In countries where non-married women were included on the SRT, these women have not been included in this investigation.

b/ Only ever-married women have been included.

c/ Since the occupational question on the Jordan questionnaire was not open ended as suggested in the WFS guidelines, we are not sure at the present time exactly how the Jordan occupational variables were coded. We are suspicious of the decidedly tri-modal occupational distributions and think it reflects the fact that occupational information for women was initially obtained in less detail, even, than the nine WFS recommended categories. Therefore, we have reservations about the direct comparability of the Jordan data with those of the other countries included in this investigation. Although we have included Jordan, albeit marginally, it is with the caveat that we do not have complete confidence in the data.

d/ The category "Farm" does not appear on the Guyana SRT. We have assumed that it was included in the "Agricultural" category, although the data documentation for the SRT do not explicitly state that this was the case.

e/ The category "Service" does not appear on the Guyana SRT for occupation before first birth, nor does the data documentation explain where this occupational group has been included. We have assumed that they were included in the Household Worker category.

f/ The three categories of Service, Skilled and Unskilled do not appear on the Guyana SRT for most recent occupation. Since all women who have not had a birth are listed as having the same occupation on both occupational variables (that is, women with an occupational code on "occupation before first birth" are again listed as having that same occupation on the "most recent occupation" variable), it is unclear what happened to the women who were coded in the Skilled and Unskilled categories on the occupation before first birth variable. We feel that they were all included in the Household Worker category, based on a perusal of the cross tabulation of the two occupational variables. This Household Work category, then, becomes a meaningless category for the most recent occupation variable. Due to this confusing data problem, Guyana has not been included in the subsequent discussion of the new occupation groups. It has been included in these tables, however, since some of the occupational categories are clean.

g/ Malaysia doe not have an SRT, and the categories were formed by us from the raw data tape. The tape used a three digit version of the ISCO, and it was not possible to distinguish private household workers from general service workers with only three digits of the ISCO, so these categories were necessarily collapsed.

h/ The "Unskilled" category does not appear on the Jordan SRT. Since we do not have the data documentation at the present time, we do not know if they were included in some other category, or if they were simply no women in this occupational group.

i/ On the Bangladesh SRT the categories of Skilled and Unskilled were collapsed. We do not know why this was done.

j/ The "Unidentified" or "Unclassified" category was included on some of the SRT's. We have shown it on the tables, but have not included these women in the final new occupational groupings. There was simply no basis on which to put them in one group or another. Rarely are they a significant part of the occupational distribution.

Table I.4 Occupational continuity: per cent of women[a] in each category before marriage by occupational status after marriage

Occupation	Panama[b]	Colombia[b]	Peru	Guyana[c]	Sri Lanka	Thailand	Malaysia	Bangladesh	Jordan[d]
1. Professional									
Drop-out	9.7	27.4	18.8	-	21.6	7.1	17.1	38.8*	28.2
Continue	82.7	60.3	68.8	78.9	74.1	72.7	73.1	61.2	69.8
Change to	5.9(2)	4.8(8)	4.2(3)	10.6(6)	1.8(4)	9.1(3)	3.6(2)	0	1.4(2)
2. Clerical									
Drop-out	20.5	41.0	45.5	-	31.1	12.5	31.0	0 *	54.5
Continue	56.5	38.2	35.1	83.3	63.9	76.8	61.3	0	42.5
Change to	13.7(1)	7.9(8)	6.9(3)	9.1(6)	2.5(4)	5.4(1)	3.2(3)	0	3.0(1)
3. Sales									
Drop-out	34.0	52.4	34.1	-	45.4	16.4	40.4	50.0*	100.0*
Continue	22.2	28.3	42.2	70.2	41.9	55.2	34.8	50.0	0
Change to	13.9(2)	7.5(8)	6.4(4)	14.0(6)	8.9(4)	14.4(4)	10.1(8)	0	0
4. Farm									
Drop-out	36.4	0 *	30.5	e/	13.1	3.7	15.7	8.7	0 *
Continue	27.3	100.0	35.4	e/	81.7	85.4	43.0	82.6	100.0
Change to	18.2(5)	0	19.5(3)	e/	3.1(5)	4.3(3)	26.4(5)	4.3(6/8)	0
5. Agriculture									
Drop-out	30.0	27.4	16.7 f/	-	12.2	8.8	17.1	50.0*	57.8
Continue	56.7	44.4	7.1 f/	84.6 e/	83.3	36.0	66.2	50.0	41.0
Change to	6.7(4)	8.1(4)	62.1(4) f/	12.0(3) e/	1.9(4)	38.6(4)	8.7(4)	0	0.5(8)
6. Household									
Drop-out	52.5	56.2	36.0	-	35.0	29.7	i/	29.8	*28.6
Continue	23.7	22.1	14.7	12.2 g/h/	35.0	8.1	i/	62.2	71.4
Change to	11.6(7)	8.5(7)	21.1(3)	77.3(5) g/h/	15.0(8)	24.3(4)	i/	8.0(8)	0

Table I.4 (continued)

Occupation	Panama [b]	Colombia [b]	Peru	Guyana [c]	Sri Lanka	Thailand	Malaysia	Bangladesh	Jordan [d]
7. Service									
Drop-out	43.4	45.2	43.1	g/h/	28.4*	24.6	51.8 i/	50.0*	*52.4
Continue	34.7	26.1	22.7	g/h/	46.9	26.2	23.3 i/	50.0	37.0
Change to	7.7(6/2)	8.7(6)	12.2(3)	g/h/	-	19.7(3)	8.0(8) i/	0	10.6(5)
8. Skilled									
Drop-out	37.6	43.7	32.3	h/	55.8	19.7	49.2	24.9 j/	57.6 k/
Continue	37.6	37.7	48.3	h/	33.5	41.7	31.3	66.7 j/	40.5 k/
Change to	6.4(7/2)	6.3(7)	7.8(3)	h/	5.4(4)	16.9(3)	7.2(6)	2.4(6) j/	0.7(3) k/
9. Unskilled									
Drop-out	31.3	47.6	36.9	h/	48.6	10.6	41.4	j/	k/
Continue	12.5	23.8	16.2	h/	29.6	34.8	28.3	j/	k/
Change to	25.0(8)	6.3(7/4)	16.2(3)	h/	10.0(5)	13.6(8/3)	10.1(8)	j/	k/
Unidentified l/									
Drop-out			3.3 *		0 *		0 *	0 *	
Continue			26.7		0		100.0	50.0	
Change to			56.7(3)		100.0(5)		0	50.0(6)	
No work									
	58.0	67.5	58.1	78.2	74.6	36.5	60.3	88.4	93.9
	8.7(6)	7.5(6)	13.9(3)	8.4(5)	7.7(4)	21.1(4)	19.0(5)	5.1(6)	2.4(5)
Overall	45.7	49.8	34.2	65.8	71.3	71.4	56.8	87.6	85.3

* < 20 cases in occupational category before marriage.

Notes:

a/ The base population for all these tables is ever-married women. In countries where non-married women were included on the SRT, these women have not been included in this investigation.

b/ Only ever-married women have been included.

c/ Guyana should not be considered as part of this discussion at the present time, as there is an error of an undefined nature in the coding of "most recent occupation" on the SRT.

d/ We are not sure at the present time exactly how the Jordan occupational variables were coded. We are suspicious of the decidedly tri-modal occupational distributions and think it reflects the fact that occupational information for women was initially obrained in less detail, even, than the nine WFS recommended categories. Therefore, we have reservations about the direct comparability of the Jordan data with those of the other countries included in this investigation. Although we have included Jordan, albeit marginally, it is with the caveat that we do not have complete confidence in the data.

e/ The category "Farm" does not appear on the Guyana SRT. We have assumed that it was included in the "Agricultural" category, although the data documentation for the SRT do not explicitly state that this was the case.

f/ Note that the Agricultural occupation shows the lowest level of continuity in Peru. We know from Table 1-A that 34 per cent of Peru's before marriage work force was in this occupational category. The reason that the category has such a low level of continuity is that there appears to be a marital status component to the definitions of both the Farm and Agricultural occupations in Peru, in that almost no one is an Agricultural worker after marriage. The opposite pattern emerges for the Farm category.

g/ The category "Service" does not appear on the Guyana SRT for occupation before first birth, nor does the data documentation explain where this occupational group has been included. We have assumed that they were included in the Household Worker category.

h/ The three categories of Service, Skilled and Unskilled do not appear on the Guyana SRT for most recent occupation. Since all women who have not had a birth are listed as having the same occupation on both occupational variables (that is, women with an occupational code on "occupation before first birth" are again listed as having that same occupation on the "most recent occupation" variable), it is unclear what happened to the women who were coded in the Skilled and Unskilled categories on the occupation before first birth variable. We feel that they were all included in the Household Worker category, based on a perusal of the cross tabulation of the two occupational variables. This Household Worker category, then, becomes a meaninginless category for the most recent occupation variable. Due to

this confusing data problem, Guyana has not been included in the subsequent discussion of the new occupation groups. It has been included in these tables, however, since some of the occupational categories are clean.

i/ Malaysia does not have an SRT, and the categories were formed by us from the raw data tape. The tape used a three digit version of the ISCO, and it was not possible to distinguish private household workers from general service workers with only three digits of the ISCO, so these categories were necessarily collapsed.

j/ The "Unskilled" category does not appear on the Jordan SRT. Since we do not have the data documentation at the present time, we do not know if they were included in some other category, or if there were simply no women in this occupational group.

k/ On the Bangladesh SRT the categories of Skilled and Unskilled were collapsed. We do not know why this was done.

l/ The "Unidentified" or "Unclassified" category was included on some of the SRT's. We have shown it on the tables, but have not included these women in the final new occupational groupings. There was simply no basis on which to put them in one group or another. Rarely are they a significant part of the occupational distribution.

Table I.4-A Direction of change in occupational size with marriage, as a per cent of total sample

Occupation	Panama[a]	Colombia[a]	Peru	Guyana	Sri Lanka	Thailand	Malaysia	Bangladesh	Jordan[b]
Professional	+	-	+	+	-	-	-	+	-
Clerical	+	-	-	+	-	0	-	0	-
Sales	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Farm	0	+	+	+ [c]	+	-	+	+	0
Agriculture	+	-	-	[c]	+	+	+	+	-
Household	-	-	-	+ [d][e]	+	-	- [f]	+	0
Service	+	+	+	[d] [e]	+	0	[f]	+	0
Skilled	+	-	+	*	-	-	-	+ [g]	-
Unskilled	+	-	-	*	+	-	-	[g]	* [h]
Unidentified [i]	*	*	0	-	*	*	0	+	*
No work	+	-	+	-	-	+	-	-	+

* No comparison possible.

Notes:

a/ Only ever-married women have been included.

b/ We are not sure at the present time exactly how the Jordan occupational variables were coded. We are suspicious of the decidedly tri-modal occupational distributions and think it reflects the fact that occupational information for women was initially obtained in less detail, even, than the nine WFS recommended categories. Therefore, we have reservations about the direct comparability of the Jordan data with those of the other countries included in this investigation. Although we have included Jordan, albeit marginally, it is with the caveat that we do not have complete confidence in the data.

c/ The category "Farm" does not appear on the Guyana SRT. We have assumed that it was included in the "Agricultural" category, although the data documentation for the SRT do not explicitly state that this was the case.

d/ The category "Service" does not appear on the Guyana SRT for occupation before first birth, nor does the data documentation explain where this occupational group has been included. We have assumed that they were included in the Household Worker category.

e/ The three categories of Service, Skilled and Unskilled do not appear on the Guyana SRT for most recent occupation. Since all women who have not had a birth are listed as having the same occupation on both occupational variables (that is, women with an occupational code on "occupation before first birth" are again listed as having that same occupation on the "most recent occupation" variable), it is unclear what happened to the women who were coded in the Skilled and Unskilled categories on the occupation before first birth variable. We feel that they were all included in the Household Worker category, based on a perusal of the cross tabulation of the two occupational variables. This Household Work category, then, becomes a meaningless category for the most recent occupation variable. Due to this confusing data problem, Guyana has not been included in the subsequent discussion of the new occupation groups. It has been included in these tables, however, since some of the occupational categories are clean.

f/ Malaysia doe not have an SRT, and the categories were formed by us from the raw data tape. The tape used a three digit version of the ISCO, and it was not possible to distinguish private household workers from general service workers with only three digits of the ISCO, so these categories were necessarily collapsed.

g/ On the Bangladesh SRT the categories of Skilled and Unskilled were collapsed. We do not know why this was done.

h/ The "Unskilled" category does not appear on the Jordan SRT. Since we do not have the data documentation at the present time, we do not know if they were included in some other category, or if there were simply no women in this occupational group.

1/ The "Unidentified" or "Unclassified" category was included on some of the SRT's. We have shown it on the tables, but have not included these women in the final new occupational groupings. There was simply no basis on which to put them in one group or another. Rarely are they a significant part of the occupational distribution.

Table I.5 Occupational Continuity: Per cent of Women[a] in Each Category After Marriage by Disposition Before Marriage

Occupation	Panama[b]	Colombia[b]	Peru	Guyana[c]	Sri Lanka	Thailand	Malaysia	Bangladesh	Jordan[d]
1. Professional									
New Entrants	21.2	21.5	20.9	11.4	18.6	9.8	15.9	82.9	19.9
Continue	56.9	65.2	66.3	80.0	77.8	78.3	77.5	17.1	79.4
Change from	14.9(2)	8.1(2)	6.0(2)	2.1(3/8)	2.1(8)	3.3(2/8)	2.2(6)	0	0.7(2)
2. Clerical									
New Entrants	32.1	23.9	17.8	15.9	11.7	5.3	7.2	100.0*	29.4
Continue	47.3	62.4	65.3	70.1	85.7	75.4	85.6	0	60.9
Change from	7.7(3)	3.7(1)	5.9(3)	5.1(1)	3.7(1)	10.5(1)	6.3(1)	0	9.8(1)
3. Sales									
New Entrants	42.2	42.0	29.9	41.7	76.8	15.9	50.3	95.6	78.3*
Continue	20.3	25.6	21.4	30.1	11.7	33.8	10.8	4.4	0
Change from	19.3(6)	11.6(6)	24.6(6)	12.8(6)	7.0(8)	26.5(4)	12.9(5)	0.	11.3(8)
4. Farm									
New Entrants	40.0*	20.6	10.4[e]	[f]	43.3	2.9	41.8	59.2	68.8*
Continue	30.0	11.8	0.7[e] [e]	[f]	48.0	90.8	13.8	38.8	31.2
Change from	20.0(5)	32.4(5)	75.9(5)	[f]	4.7(8)	1.9(5/8)	39.9(5)	2.0(8)	0
5. Agriculture									
New Entrants	42.9	25.2	24.1	23.1[f]	28.2	9.6	32.5	63.8*	36.0
Continue	34.7	52.2	51.1	26.4 [f]	67.7	26.3	62.6	24.1	61.9
Change from	18.4(6)	15.7(6)	18.1(6)	42.5(6)[f]	1.8(8)	51.9(4)	1.8(4)	12.1(8)	1.1(8)
6. Household									
New Entrants	33.0	43.2	18.0	[g]	72.5	15.4*	[h]	85.7	0*
Continue	56.5	43.9	66.8	[g]	18.6	23.1	[h]	13.1	100.0
Change from	4.3(7)	3.6(7/8)	4.9(5)	[g]	6.9(5)	30.8(4)	[h]	0.5(8)	0

Table I.5 (continued)

Occupation	Panama[b]	Colombia[b]	Peru	Guyana[c]	Sri Lanka	Thailand	Malaysia	Bangladesh	Jordan[d]
7. Service									
New Entrants	33.6	45.8	24.1	[g]	55.1*	19.7	24.1[h]	89.7*	63.9
Continue	22.4	13.2	10.9	[g]	29.4	26.2		10.3	31.9
Change from	31.9(6)	20.7(6)	29.5(6)	[g]	15.4(5)	21.3(3)		0	4.2(5)
8. Skilled									
New Entrants	31.9	36.0	24.6	[g]	41.6	11.2	32.1	82.0 [i]	41.5 [i]
Continue	30.4	40.1	42.3	[g]	53.2	49.2	41.6	15.8([i]	56.6 [i]
Change from	20.7(6)	7.7(6)	11.0(5)	[g]	1.6(5)	24.4(4)	12.0(5)	1.9(6)[i]	1.1(5)[i]
9. Unskilled									
New Entrants	27.5	32.4	22.3	[g]	74.9	6.4	30.8	[i]	[i]
Continue	9.1	40.5	25.3	[g]	13.1	48.9	35.9	[i]	[i]
Change from	40.9(6)	8.1(5)	26.4(6)	[g]	4.8(5)	14.9(4)	21.8(5)	[i]	[i]
Unidentified [k]									
New Entrants			0		0		22.2*	94.5	
Continue			0		0		66.7	5.5	
Change from			0		0		11.1(5)	0	
No work									
	51.4	58.2	46.6	100.0	82.8	32.2	67.6	99.0	89.0
	29.4(6)	16.7(6)	15.7(6)	-	9.6 (8)	25.3(4)	10.6(5)	0.4(6)	5.5(5)

* < 20 cases in catergory after marriage.

Table I.5 (continued)

Notes:

a/ The base population for all these tables is ever-married women. In countries where non-married women were included on the SRT, these women have not been included in this investigation.

b/ Only ever-married women have been included.

c/ Guyana should not be considered as part of this discussion at the present time, as there is an error of an undefined nature in the coding of "most recent occupation" on the SRT.

d/ Since the occupational question on the Jordan questionnaire was not open ended as suggested in the WFS guidelines, we are not sure at the present time exactly how the Jordan occupational variables were coded. We are suspicious of the decidedly tri-modal occupational distributions and think it reflects the fact that occupational information for women was initially obtained in less detail, even, than the nine WFS recommended categories. Therefore, we have reservations about the direct comparability of the Jordan data with those of the other countries included in this investigation. Although we have included Jordan, albeit marginally, it is with the caveat that we do not have complete confidence in the data.

e/ Note that the Agricultural occupation shows the lowest level of continuity in Peru. We know from table 1A that 34 per cent of Peru's before marriage work force was in this occupational category. The reason that that category has such a low level of continuity is that there appears to be a marital status component to the difinitions of both the Farm and Agricultural occupations in Peru, in that almost no one is an Agricultural worker after marriage. The opposite pattern emerges for the Farm category.

f/ The category "Farm" does not appear on the Guyana SRT. We have assumed that it was included in the "Agricultural" category, although the data documentation for the SRT do not explicitly state that this was the case.

g/ Due to the previously mentioned (see footnote h to table 4) problem with "most recent occupation" on the Guyana SRT, it was not possible to assess continuity for the Household/Service, Skilled or Unskilled categories.

h/ Malaysia does not have an SRT, and the categories were formed by us from the raw data tape. The tape used a three digit version of the ISCO, and it was not possible to distinguish private household workers from general service workers with only three digits of the ISCO, so these categories were necessarily collapsed.

i/ On the Bangladesh SRT the categories of Skilled and Unskilled were collapsed. We do not know why this was done.

j/ The "Unskilled" category does not appear on the Jordan SRT. Since we do not have the data documentation at the present time, we do not know if they were included in some other category, or if there were simply no women in this occupational group.

k/ The "Unidentified" or "Unclassified" category was included on some of the SRT's. We have shown it on the tables, but have not included these women in the final new occupational groupings. There was simply no basis on which to put them in one group or another. Rarely are they a significant part of the occupational distribution.

Table I.6 Per cent of working women[a] who worked away from home by occupation after marriage and the total per cent of women who worked away from home as a per cent of all women and all working women, by country

Occupation	Panama[b]	Colombia[b]	Peru	Guyana	Sri Lanka	Thailand	Malaysia	Jordan[c]	Bangladesh
Professional	97.0	90.4	95.5	81.7	98.8	92.4	97.8	93.6	91.7
Clerical	96.8	98.2	94.5	83.5	99.2	96.5	96.4	100.0	100.0*
Sales	76.4	53.1	63.7	59.2	70.5	54.2	46.9	68.8	33.3
Farmers	60.0*	5.9*	0	d/	8.6	9.3	57.7	68.8	61.2
Agricultural	34.7	61.7	100.0	51.4[d]	98.1	96.8	80.4	25.9	55.6
Household	94.6	95.3	80.5	58.4[e/f]	92.4	53.8*	71.7[g]	100.0	84.3
Service	84.9	77.1	45.8	e/f/	50.5*	70.5	g/	80.3	90.5
Skilled	68.1	39.4	18.1	f/	42.2	47.6	50.3	11.9[h]	49.6[i]
Unskilled	95.5	94.6	59.7	f/	98.3	93.6	98.7	h/	i/
Unidentified[j]	-	-	100.0*	-	-	-	-	-	66.7
Per cent of all working women	87.4	69.8	41.4	77.1	64.6	27.4	72.8	47.2	66.6
Per cent of all women	46.4	30.4	26.0	37.1	27.3	24.8	41.3	6.7	8.9

* < 20 cases.

Notes:

a/ The base population for all these tables is ever married women. In countries where non-married women were included on the SRT, these women have not been included in this investigation.

b/ Only ever-married women have been included.

c/ We are not sure at the present time exactly how the Jordan occupational variables were coded. We are suspicious of the decidedly tri-modal occupational distributions and think it reflects the fact that occupational information for women was initially obtained in less detail, even, than the nine WFS recommended categories. Therefore, we have reservations about the direct comparability of the Jordan data with those of the other countries included in this investigation. Although we have included Jordan, albeit marginally, it is with the caveat that we do not have complete confidence in the data.

d/ The category "Farm" does not appear on the Guyana SRT. We have assumed tnat it was included in the "Agricultural" category, although the data documentation for the SRT do not explicitly state that this was the case.

e/ The category "Service" does not appear on the Guyana SRT for occupation before first birth, nor does the data documentation explain where this occupational group has been included. We have assumed that they were included in the Household Worker category.

f/ The three categories of Service, Skilled and Unskilled do not appear on the Guyana SRT for most recent occupation. Since all women who have not had a birth are listed as having the same occupation on both occupational variables (that is, women with an occupational code on "occupation before first birth" are again listed as having that same occupation on the "most recent occupation" variable), it is unclear what happened to the women who were coded in the Skilled and Unskilled categories on the occupation before first birth variable. We feel that they were all included in the Household Worker category, based on a perusal of the cross tabulation of the two occupational variables. This Household Work category, then, becomes a meaningless category for the most recent occupation variable. Due to this confusing data problem, Guyana has not been included in the subsequent discussion of the new occupation groups. It has been included in these tables, however, since some of the occupational categories are clean.

g/ Malaysia does not have an SRT, and the categories were formed by us from the raw data tape. The tape used a three digit version of the ISCO, and it was not possible to distinguish private household workers from general service workers with only three digits of the ISCO, so these categories were necessarily collapsed.

h/ The "Unskilled" category does not appear on the Jordan SRT. Since we do not have the data documentation at the present time, we do not know if they were included in some other category, or if there were simply no women in this occupational group.

i/ On the Bangladesh SRT the categories of Skilled and Unskilled were collapsed. We do not know why this was done.

j/ The "Unidentified" or "Unclassified" category was included on some of the SRT's. We have shown it on the tables, but have not included these women in the final new occupational groupings. There was simply no basis on which to put them in one group or another. Rarely are they a significant part of the occupational distribution.

Table I.7 Per cent of women in most numerous and second most numerous work status category by occupation before marriage

(f = family worker, O = non-family employee, I= self-employed)

Occupation	Panama[a]	Colombia[a]	Peru	Guyana[b]	Sri Lanka	Thailand	Malaysia[c]	Jordan[d]	Bangladesh
Professional									
First	99(O)	92(O)	97(O)		95(O)	98(O)	97(O)	98(O)	100(O)*
Second	-	6(I)	2(I)		5(I)	-	3(I)	1(I)	-
Clerical									
First	99(O)	96(O)	96(O)		100(O)	96(O)	99(O)	97(O)	- *
Second	-	3(F)	4(F)		-	4(F)	-	3(F)	-
Sales									
First	92(O)	78(O)	39(O)		54(O)	59(F)	57(O)	100(O)*	61(I)*
Second	6(F)	13(I)	32(I)		31(I)	28(I)	33(I)	-	39(F)
Farmer									
First	55(I)*	50(F)*	100(I)		93(F)	95(F)	61(I)	100(I)*	52(O)
Second	45(F)	50(I)	-		7(O)	3(I)	36(F)	-	39(I)
Agricultural									
First	70(F)	50(O)	85(F)		98(O)	91(O)	49(O)	83(F)	100(O)*
Second	30(O)	40(F)	15(O)		1(F)	7(F)	51(F)	9(O)	-
Household									
First	96(O)	91(O)	95(O)		100(O)	87(O)	6(I)[e]	100(O)*	93(O)
Second	4(F)	8(F)	5(F)		-	8(F)	88(O)[e]	-	17(F)
Service									
First	92(O)	86(O)	66(O)		66(O)	82(O)	[e]	66(O)	61(O)*
Second	16(I)	8(I)	18(F)		19(I)	12(I)	[e]	28(I)	39(I)
Skilled									
First	74(O)	61(O)	42(O)		77(O)	63(O)	73(O)	70(I)	24(F)[f]
Second	23(I)	28(I)	37(I)		20(I)	18(I)	17(I)	21(O)	59(O)[f]

Table I.7 (continued)

Occupation	Panama[a]	Colombia[a]	Peru	Guyana[b]	Sri Lanka	Thailand	Malaysia[c]	Jordan[d]	Bangladesh
Unskilled									
First	100(0)*	86(0)	66(0)		97(0)	86(0)	78(0)	[g]	[f]
Second	-	6(I)	26(F)		3(I)	8(I)	21(I)	[g]	[f]
Unidentified[h]									
First	-	-	89(0)		100(0)*	-			100(I)*
Second			11(F)		-	-			
Per cent labour force self-employed	2.5	9.3	8.7		6.9	6.1	7.1	22.3	14.5
Per cent labour force family paid	4.3	10.0	37.6		18.7	74.9	31.7	39.2	13.0
Per cent labour force employed by others	93.2	80.7	53.7		74.4	18.7	61.2	38.5	72.5

* < 20 cases.

Notes:

a/ Only ever-married women have been included.

b/ The "Work status before first birth" variable on the Guyana SRT shows over 81 per cent of the labour force as being self-employed. When broken down by occupation, anamolous patterns emerge such that the credibility of this variable is very low. We have chosen not to use this work status variable in this analysis, since it might lead us to erroneous conclusions. We are in the process of investigating the source of this problem.

c/ The Malaysia data do not distinguish between being employed by family or someone else. The major categorizations used are: unpaid family, employee, own account, and employer. For purposes of this investigation, we have assumed that "employee" is primarily made up of those employed by someone outside the family.

d/ Since the occupational question on the Jordan questionnaire was not open ended as suggested in the WFS guidelines, we are not sure at the present time exactly how the Jordan occupational variables were coded. We are suspicious of the decidedly trimodal occupational distributions and think it reflects the fact that occupational information for women was initially obtained in less detail, even, than the nine WFS recommended categories. Therefore, we have reservations about the direct comparability of the Jordan data with those of the other countries included in this investigation. Although we have included Jordan, albeit marginally, it is with the caveat that we do not have complete confidence in the data.

e/ Malaysia does not have an SRT, and the categories were formed by us from the raw data tape. The tape used a three digit version of the ISCO, and it was not possible to distinguish private household workers from general service workers with only three digits of the ISCO, so these categories were necessarily collapsed.

f/ On the Bangladesh SRT the categories of Skilled and Unskilled were collapsed. We do not know why this was done.

g/ The "Unskilled" category does not appear on the Jordan SRT. Since we do not have the data documentation at the present time, we do not know if they were included in some other category, or if there were simply no women in this occupation group.

h/ The "Unidentified" or "Unclassified" category was included on some of the SRT's. We have shown it on the tables, but have not included these women in the final new occupational groupings. There was simply no basis on which to put them in one group or another. Rarely are they a significant part of the occupational distribution.

Table I.8. Per cent of women in most numerous and second most numerous work status category by occupation after marriage

(f== family worker, O = non-family employee, I = self-employed)

Occupation	Panama[a]	Colombia[a]	Peru	Guyana	Sri Lanka	Thailand	Malaysia[b]	Jordan[c]	Bangladesh
Professional									
First	98(O)	89(O)	93(O)	98(O)	98(O)	87(O)	96(O)		82(O)
Second	2(I)	7(I)	6(I)	2(I)	2(I)	10(I)	4(I)		13(I)
Clerical									
First	97(O)	96(O)	90(O)	96(O)	100(O)	97(O)	96(O)		100(O)*
Second	1(I)	4(F)	6(F)	4(F)	-	3(I)	-		-
Sales									
First	64(O)	62(I)	88(I)	49(O)	80(I)	87(I)	48(I)		93(I)
Second	30(I)	27(O)	60(O)	38(I)	11(O)	10(F)	42(F)		-
Farmer									
First	60(O)*	91(F)	100(F)	d/	91(F)	91(F)	90(I)		100(O)
Second	40(F)	6(I)	-	d/	8(O)	9(O)	8(F)		
Agricultural									
First	63(F)	62(O)	100(O)	16(F) d/	96(O)	95(O)	53(O)		52(I)*
Second	35(O)	38(F)	-	84(O) d/	2(I)	3(F)	45(F)		48(O)
Household									
First	97(O)	90(O)	96(O)	81(O) e/ f/	100(O)	77(O)	17(I) g/		89(O)
Second	2(F)	8(F)	4(F)	15(I) e/ f/	-	15(I)	77(O) g/		9(F)
Service									
First	78(O)	80(O)	59(I)	f/	77(I)	64(O)	g/		84(O)*
Second	19(I)	19(I)	35(O)	f/	23(O)	31(I)	g/		16(I)
Skilled									
First	67(O)	56(I)	77(I)	f/	61(O)	55(O)	55(O)		24(I) h/
Second	30(I)	39(O)	19(O)	f/	37(I)	39(I)	38(I)		69(O) h/

Table I.8 (Continued)

Occupation	Panama[a]	Colombia[a]	Peru	Guyana	Sri Lanka	Thailand	Malaysia[b]	Jordan[c]	Bangladesh
Unskilled									
First	100(0)	81(0)	54(0)	f/	93(0)	92(0)	82(0)		h/
Second	-	14(I)	39(I)	f/	6(I)	6(I)	18(I)		h/
Unidentified[i]									
First	-	-	100(0)*		-	-	-		71(I)
Second			-						22(0)
Per cent labour force self employed	10.3	24.9	36.3	10.6	9.6	14.7	20.5		16.8
Per cent labour force family paid	4.3	10.6	35.1	9.2	25.9	64.2	28.7		7.2
Per cent labour force employed by others	85.4	64.5	28.6	80.2	64.5	21.1	50.8		76.0

* < 20 cases.

Table I.8 (continued)

Notes:

a/ Only ever-married women have been included.

b/ The Malaysia data do not distinguish between being employed by family or someone else. The major categorizations used are: unpaid family, employee, own account, and employer. For purposes of this investigation, we have assumed that "employee" is primarily made up of those employed by someone outside the family.

c/ The "work status after marriage" variable appears to be incorrect on the SRT for Jordan, due to the unexplained disappearance of the self employed women. If it is really the case that no Jordanian women are self employed, after marriage, this would clearly be a radical break from the pattern shown by all the other countries. Until this question is answered, however, we will not include Jordan in the discussion of before and after marriage work status comparisons either here or in the section on the new occupational groupings.

d/ The category "Farm" does not appear on the Guyana SRT. We have assumed that it was included in the "Agricultural" category, although the data documentation for the SRT do not explicitly state that this was the case.

e/ The category "Service" does not appear on the Guyana SRT for occupation before first birth, nor does the data documentation explain where this occupational gropu has been included. We have assumed that they were included in the Household Worker category.

f/ The three categories of Service, Skilled and Unskilled do not appear on the Guyana SRT for most recent occupation. Since all women who have not had a birth are listed ashhaving the same occupation on both occupational variables (that is, women with an occupational code on "occupation before first birth" are again listed as having that same occupation on the "most recent occupation" variable), it is unclear what happened to the women who were coded in the Skilled and Unskilled categories on the occupation before first birth variable. We feel that they were all included in the Household Worker category, based on a perusal of the cross tabulation of the two occupational variables. This Household Worker category, then, becomes a meaningless category for the most recent occupation variable. Due to this confusing data problem, Guyana has not been included in the subsequent discussion of the new occupation groups. It has been included in these tables, however, since some of the occupational categories are clean.

g/ Malaysia does not have an SRT, and the categories were formed by us from the raw data tape. The tape used a three digit version of the ISCO, and it was not possible to distinguish private household workers from general service workers with only three digits of the ISCO, so these categories were necessarily collapsed.

h/ On the Bangladesh SRT the categories of Skilled and UNskilled were collapsed. We do not know why this was done.

i/ The "Unidentified" or "Unclassified" category was included on some of the SRT's. We have shown it on the tables, but have not included these women in the final new occupational groupings. There was simply no basis on which to put them in one group or another. Rarely are they a significant part of the occupational distribution.

Table I.9 Summary Statistics for New Occupational Groupings[a]

Occupational Group		Panama[b]	Colombia[c]	Peru[d]	Sri Lanka	Thailand	Malaysia[e]	Bangladesh[f]	Jordan[g]
GROUP I MODERN									
Per Cent Labour Force After Marriage		36.3	16.9	11.8	9.4	4.3	8.2	3.6	30.4
Urban Ratio[h]		1.47	1.39	1.50	1.92	4.52	2.02	4.90	1.38
Per Cent Worked Away After Marriage		96.9	93.9	95.0	98.9	94.0	97.3	90.1	94.5
Educational Rank		1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Continuity Per Cent		77	53	52	73	80	70	61	67
Shift Group		R II/III	III	III	N	III	R ALL	N	N
Before	First Work Status	99(0)	94(0)	96(0)	96(0)	97(0)	98(0)	100(0)	98(0)
	Second Work Status	1(F)	3(F)	3(F)	4(I)	2(F)	2(I)	-	1(I)
After	First Work Status	98(0)	92(0)	92(0)	98(0)	91(0)	96(0)	83(0)	96(0)
	Second Work Status	2(I)	4(F)	6(I)	2(I)	7(I)	3(I)	13(I)	4(F)
Age at Marriage (Occupation Before Marriage)		22.3	21.5	22.9	26.2	23.0	23.2	19.1	22.5
Ratio		1.17	1.13	1.19	1.36	1.20	1.26	1.55	1.32
Rank		1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
CEB (age standard) (Occupation Since Marriage)		2.60	2.57	2.62	2.05	2.22	2.30	3.17	3.06
Ratio		0.65	0.60	0.58	0.52	0.57	0.54	0.80	0.57
Rank		1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Survival Ratio (age standard)		.89	.80	.88	.76	.83	.79	.68	.84
Rank		3/4	4	1	5	4	5	1	1/2

Table I.9 (continued)

Occupational Group		Panama[b]	Colombia[c]	Peru[d]	Sri Lanka	Thailand	Malaysia[e]	Bangladesh[f]	Jordan[g]
GROUP II TRANSITIONAL									
Per Cent Labour Force After Marriage		38.5	35.1	12.7	2.9	2.1	8.8	45.2	4.7
Urban Ratio		1.12	1.15	1.39	2.21	4.01	1.98	1.65	1.24
Per Cent Worked Away After Marriage		90.1	87.2	62.1	83.4	67.6	71.8	82.1	82.2
Educational Rank		3	3	3	3	2	3	4	3
Continuity Per Cent		37	31	23	38	20	23	62	42
Shift Group		III	III	III	R$\frac{III}{IV}$	R$\frac{III}{IV}$	III	N	N
Before	First Work Status	96(O)	90(O)	91(O)	92(O)	84(O)	87(O)	92(O)	71(O)
	Second Work Status	4(F)	8(F)	7(F)	5(I)	9(I)	7(I)	6(F)	24(I)
After	First Work Status	88(O)	85(O)	63(O)	84(O)	66(O)	77(O)	89(O)	85(O)
	Second Work Status	9(I)	10(I)	32(I)	16(I)	28(I)	17(I)	9(F)	15(F)
Age at Marriage (Occupation Before Marriage)		18.8	19.2	18.7	21.9	20.4	20.5	12.1	20.6
Ratio		.99	1.01	0.97	1.14	1.07	1.11	0.98	1.20
Rank		3	4	3	2	2	2	5	2
CEB (age standard) (Occupation Since Marriage)		4.25	4.20	4.41	3.49	3.08	3.85	3.59	3.89
Ratio		1.06	0.98	0.98	.89	0.79	0.91	0.90	0.72
Rank		3	3	2	2	2	2	3	2
Survival Ratio (age standard)		.88	.82	.83	.80	.86	.87	.62	.78
Rank		5	3	3	4	1	2	5	5

Table I.9 (continued)

Occupational Group		Panama[b]	Colombia[c]	Peru[d]	Sri Lanka	Thailand	Malaysia[e]	Bangladesh[f]	Jordan[g]
GROUP III MIXED									
Per Cent Labour Force After Marriage		21.7	37.7	39.1	23.4	20.4	21.4	43.3	26.2
Urban Ratio		1.33	1.30	1.24	1.08	2.34	1.49	0.68	1.17
Per Cent Worked Away After Marriage		74.5	48.4	47.1	59.4	54.5	55.0	48.7	16.3
Educational Rank		2	2	2	2	3	2	3	2
Continuity Per Cent		35	40	52	36	61	40	66	41
Shift Group		R $\frac{I}{II}$	II	II	IV	IV	R $\frac{II}{IV}$	N	N
Before	First Work Status	86(O)	70(O)	43(O)	78(O)	45(O)	72(O)	57(O)	70(I)
	Second Work Status	9(I)	21(I)	32(I)	19(I)	34(F)	17(I)	24(F)	22(O)
After	First Work Status	67(O)	55(O)	81(I)	62(O)	65(I)	41(O)	62(O)	87(F)
	Second Work Status	29(I)	37(I)	14(O)	35(I)	27(O)	40(I)	30(I)	13(O)
Age at Marriage (Occupation Before Marriage)		20.0	20.3	19.9	20.9	19.7	20.4	12.8	19.1
Ratio		1.05	1.06	1.04	1.09	1.03	1.11	1.04	1.12
Rank		2	2	2	3	3	3	3	3
CEB (age standard) (Occupation Since Marriage)		3.58	3.79	4.51	3.87	3.50	4.07	3.75	4.89
Ratio		0.90	0.89	1.00	0.98	0.89	0.96	0.94	0.91
Rank		2	2	3	3	3	3	4	3
Survival Ratio (age standard)		0.90	0.83	.84	.81	.83	.85	.64	.81
Rank		2	2	2	3	3	4	4	4

Table I.9 (continued)

Occupational Group		Panama[b]	Colombia[c]	Peru[d]	Sri Lanka	Thailand	Malaysia[e]	Bangladesh[f]	Jordan[g]
GROUP IV TRADITIONAL									
Per Cent Labour Force After Marriage		3.5	10.3	36.4	64.2	73.1	61.6	7.9	38.7
Urban Ratio		0.12	0.23	0.34	0.06	0.10	0.29	0.06	0.23
Per Cent Worked Away After Marriage		39.0	50.0	14.4	60.6	14.7	76.9	61.1	26.6
Educational Rank		4	4	4	4	4	4	2	4
Continuity Per Cent		58	54	69	85	88	75	78	41
Shift Group		N	R II/III	R II/III	III	III	R II/III	N	N
Before	First Work Status	63(F)	48(O)	84(F)	69(O)	91(F)	50(F)	59(O)	83(F)
	Second Work Status	22(O)	40(F)	15(O)	33(F)	6(O)	46(O)	33(I)	9(O)
After	First Work Status	59(F)	50(F)	86(F)	59(O)	85(F)	44(O)	59(O)	75(F)
	Second Work Status	39(O)	48(O)	14(O)	39(F)	14(O)	39(F)	33(F)	15(O)
Age at Marriage (Occupation Before Marriage)		17.6	19.6	18.7	17.9	18.8	17.8	14.0	16.8
Ratio		0.93	1.03	0.97	0.93	0.98	0.96	1.14	0.98
Rank		5	3	4	5	4	4	2	4
CEB (age standard) (Occupation Since Marriage)		5.84	5.29	5.08	4.32	4.21	4.65	3.48	6.01
Ratio		1.46	1.24	1.13	1.10	1.07	1.10	0.87	1.12
Rank		5	5	5	5	5	5	2	5
Survival Ratio (age standard)		.92	.79	.75	.82	.82	.86	.66	.82
Rank		1	5	5	2	5	3	3	3

Table I.9 (continued)

Occupational Group	Panama[b]	Colombia[c]	Peru[d]	Sri Lanka	Thailand	Malaysia[e]	Bangladesh[f]	Jordan[g]
GROUP V NO WORK								
Per Cent Women (After Marriage)	46.9	56.4	37.8	57.7	9.6	43.3	85.9	86.5
Urban Ratio	0.71	0.88	1.06	1.34	2.55	1.24	0.97	1.02
Age at Marriage (Occupation Before Marriage)	17.8	18.2	18.1	18.7	18.2	17.5	12.3	16.7
Ratio	0.94	0.95	0.94	0.97	0.95	0.95	1.00	0.98
Rank	4	5	5	4	5	5	4	5
CEB (age standard) (Occupation Since Marriage)	4.49	4.62	4.60	3.93	3.63	4.19	4.03	5.49
Ratio	1.12	1.08	1.02	1.00	0.93	0.99	1.02	1.02
Rank	4	4	4	4	4	4	5	4
Survival Ratio (age standard)	.89	.84	.83	.85	.85	.87	.66	.84
Rank	3/4	1	4	1	2	1	2	1/2
SAMPLE TOTALS								
Per Cent Urban	58.1	64.3	64.4	18.4	15.2	30.9	7.9	70.1
Overall Continuity	52	53	52	72	77	61	88	86
Survival Ratio	.89	.83	.82	.84	.83	.86	.66	.83
Age at Marriage	19.0	19.1	19.2	19.2	19.	18.4	12.3	17.1
CEB	4.00	4.28	4.51	3.94	3.92	4.22	3.96	5.37

Notes:

a/ Guyana has not been included here due to the data problems having to do with the coding of "most recent occupation".

b/ Includes only ever-married women. N = 3203

c/ Includes only ever-married women. N = 3302

d/ The "Unclassified" or "Unidentified" occupational category has not been included. N = 5636

e/ The "Unidentified" occupational category has not been included. N = 6312

f/ The "Unclassified" occupational category has not been included. N = 6493

g/ The Work Status for Jordan may not be reliable, especially after marriage.

h/ The definition of "urban" is country-specific. For countries with other than a dichotomous background for this variable, we have defined "urban" as "non-rural".

APPENDIX II

Tables for Part II on Husbands' Occupation

APPENDIX II

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Table II.1 Distribution of Husbands/Partners by Occupation, Education Rank and Urban Ratio for Ten countries

Occupation	Panama	Colombia	Peru	Guyana	Sri Lanka	Thailand	Malaysia	Indonesia	Korea	Jordan
rofessional										
Per cent of all men	12.8	6.7	9.2	9.9	7.7	7.1	8.0	7.8 a/	9.2	11.8
Educational rank b/	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	1 a/	1	1
Urban ratio	1.47	1.44	1.44	1.67	1.92	3.06	1.77	2.74 a/	1.33	1.26
lerical										
Per cent of all men	5.0	4.1	7.0	7.0	4.8	2.3	4.6	a/	7.5	6.3
Educational rank b/	2	2	2	2	2	1	2	a/	2	2
Urban ratio	1.48	1.51	1.47	1.75	2.15	3.55	1.91	a/	1.38	1.17
ales										
Per cent of all men	7.7	11.1	9.6	4.8	9.6	5.9	10.1	18.3 c/	11.6	11.5
Educational rank b/	3	3	4	3	4	4	4	3 c/	4	4
Urban ratio	1.30	1.46	1.33	1.39	1.85	3.35	1.71	1.94 c/	1.44	1.20
arm										
Per cent of all men	16.3	9.4	28.7	34.0 d/	26.8	59.2	21.8	56.7 e/	29.2	2.1
Educational rank b/	8	7	8	5 d/	6	7	8	4 e/	8	8
Urban ratio	0.14	0.39	0.34	0.60 d/	0.21	0.11	0.07	0.15 e/	0.26	0.33
griculture										
Per cent of all men	9.3	28.0	10.0	d/	13.6	3.4	15.6	e/	4.9	5.8
Educational rank b/	7	8	7	d/	8	8	7	e/	7	9
Urban ratio	0.25	0.30	0.61	d/	0.16	0.31	0.23	e/	0.54	0.31
ousehold f/										
Per cent of all men	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	g/	c/	-	7.7
Educational rank b/	-	-	-	-	-	-	g/	c/	-	6
Uraban ratio	0.0	-	1.56	-	0.80	0.0	g/	c/	-	1.09

Table II.1(continued)

Occupation	Panama	Colombia	Peru	Guyana	Sri Lanka	Thailand	Malaysia	Indonesia	Korea	Jordan
ce										
cent of all men	11.6	5.5	5.2	h/	6.7	4.3	9.2 g/	c/	5.2	20.6
cational rank b/	5	5	3	h/	3	3	3 g/	c/	3	3
an ratio	1.29	1.40	1.44	h/	1.36	1.82	1.21 g/	c/	1.32	0.65
ed										
cent of all men	33.6	31.2	19.5	33.4	18.9	14.2	23.0	15.9 i/	24.8	31.9
cational rank b/	4	4	5	4	5	5	5	2 i/	5	5
an ratio	1.18	1.40	1.36	1.10	1.39	2.16	1.39	2.07 i/	1.37	1.17
lled										
cent of all men	3.3	3.8	9.3	9.4	10.8	3.2	7.4	i/	6.5	2.4
cational rank b/	6	6	6	6	7	6	6	i/	6	7
an ratio	1.25	1.19	1.31	0.62	1.43	1.07	1.11	i/	1.31	0.98
ntified j/										
cent of all men	-	0.2	1.0	1.0	0.1	-	-	0.7	0.7	-
cational rank b/	-		(6)			-	(1)	(3)	-	-
an ratio	-				1.26	-	1.23	1.19	-	-
rk k/										
cent of all men	0.2	0.2	0.5	0.6	0.9	0.3	0.1	0.6	0.4	0.1
cational rank b/			(3)	(4)			(5)	(2)	(3)	(3)
an ratio	1.29	1.30	1.22		1.14		1.06	1.19	-	1.08
e totals										
	32.03	33.02	56.39	36.16	68.10	38.20	62.20	91.55	54.30	36.12
cent urban	58.1	64.3	64.2	36.0	18.4	15.2	31.4	16.0	59.8	70.1

Table II.1 (continued)

otes:

The Professional and Clerical categories have been combined on the Indonesia SRT.

The ranks for Guyana and Indonesia are not directly comparable to those for the other countries because these o countries have far fewer occupational categories to rank.

The Sales, Household and Services categories have been combined on the Indonesia SRT.

Farm and Agriculture categories have not been distinguished on the Guyana SRT.

The Farm and Agriculture categories have been combined on the Indonesia SRT.

For most countries, the Household category has so few men, that we were unable to compute meaningful measures r this category. Where computations were possible, we have included values for this category, but only for rdan is this really a viable occupation. Unless otherwise noted, then, the lack of values for this category due to extremely small cell sizes. This category has not been considered for purposes of ranking the others.

The Household and Service categories are not distinguishable from the Malaysia raw data tape. We do not have SRT for Malaysia.

The Service category does not appear on the Guyana SRT.

The Skilled and Unskilled categories have been combined on the Indonesia SRT.

The Unidentified, Unclassified or Other category has been included where available for illustrative purposes. has not been included in the subsequent analysis of new occupational groups. Numbers in perentheses indicate rank that is suggested, but this category has not been considered for purposes of ranking the other categories.

The No Work category has been included where available for illustrative purposes. It has been included the subsequent analysis of new occupational groups. Numbers in perentheses indicate the rank that is suggested, this category has not been considered for purposes of ranking the other categories.

Table II.2 Husbands/Partners First and Second Work Status by Occupation for Nine Countries [a]

Occupation	Panama [b]	Colombia	Peru	Guyana	Sri Lanka	Malaysia [c]	Indonesia	Korea	Jordan
fessional									
st: Per cent (status)	91(0)	81(0)	85(0)	92(0)	84(0)	89(0)	96(0)[d]	80(0)	87(0)
nd: Per cent (status)	8(S)	19(E)	9(E)	4(S)	9(S)	6(S)	2(E)[d]	12(E)	9(E)
rical									
st: Per cent (status)	98(0)	98(0)	96(0)	98(0)	100(0)	98(0)	[d]	97(0)	95(0)
nd: Per cent (status)	2(S)	2(F)	2(F)	2(S)	-	2(S)	[d]	1(F)	2(E)
es									
st: Per cent (status)	54(0)	53(S)	62(S)	41(0)	61(S)	59(S)	54(S)[e]	65(0)	61(S)
nd: Per cent (status)	44(S)	25(0)	23(0)	38(S)	21(0)	25(0)	41(0)[e]	20(E)	21(E)
a									
st: Per cent (status)	97(S)	53(E)	85(S)	71(0)[f]	80(S)	89(S)	54(S)[g]	87(S)	45(S)
nd: Per cent (status)	3(0)	34(S)	15(E)	24(S)[f]	15(0)	7(0)	32(0)[g]	7(E)	28(0)
.cultural									
st: Per cent (status)	78(0)	55(0)	82(0)	[f]	89(0)	86(0)	[g]	56(0)	43(0)
nd: Per cent (status)	18(S)	35(S)	18(F)	[f]	9(S)	7(S)	[g]	33(F)	37(S)
ehold [h]									
t: Per cent (status)	50(0)	-	100(0)	-	95(0)	[i]	[e]	-	84(0)
d: Per cent (status)	50(S)	-	-	-	5(S)	[i]	[e]	-	8(E)
ice									
t: Per cent (status)	95(0)	95(0)	89(0)	[j]	87(0)	88(0)[i]	[e]	69(0)	99(0)
d: Per cent (status)	4(S)	4(S)	5(E)	[j]	10(S)	9(S)[i]	[e]	16(E)	1(F)

Table II.2 (continued)

Occupation	Panama [b]	Colombia	Peru	Guyana	Sri Lanka	Malaysia [c]	Indonesia	Korea	Jordan
lled									
st: Per cent (status)	77(0)	67(0)	62(0)	81(0)	71(0)	83(0)	65(0)[k]	70(0)	64(0)
nd: Per cent (status)	22(S)	20(S)	27(S)	14(S)	24(S)	14(S)	29(S)[k]	16(E)	19(S)
killed									
st: Per cent (status)	97(0)	82(0)	79(0)	97(0)	91(0)	87(0)	[k]	82(0)	72(0)
nd: Per cent (status)	3(S)	14(S)	16(S)	3(S)	7(S)	15(S)	[k]	15(S)	23(S)
dentified [l]									
st: Per cent (status)			94(0)		81(0)		84(0)		
nd: Per cent (status)			4(S)		19(S)		13(S)		

tes:

Thailand has been excluded from this Table since we have been instructed by WFS not to use the husbands work atus variable.

The work status variable for Panama does not conform at all to the WFS recommended coding, therefore, the ly possible distinctions are: family, other, self-employed.

The work status variable for Malaysia (not an SRT) does not allow a complete distinction between employment by mily or others. Only family unpaid work is distinguished. Our "other" status, therefore, no doubt contians ny people employed by family members who are paid in cash, kind, or both.

The Professional and Clerical categories have been combined on the Indonesia SRT.

The Sales, Household and Services categories have been combined on the Indonesia SRT.

f/ Farm and Agriculture categories have not been distinguished on the Guyana SRT.

g/ The Farm and Agriculture categories have been combined on the Indonesia SRT.

h/ For most countries, the Household category has so few men, that we were unable to compare meaningful measures for this category. Where computations were possible, we have included values for this category, but only for Jordan is this really a viable occupation. Unless otherwise noted, then, the lack of values for this category is due to extremely small cell sizes.

i/ The Household and Service categories are not distinguishable from the Malaysia raw data tape. We do not have an SRT for Malaysia.

j/ The Service category does not appear on the Guyana SRT.

k/ The Skilled and Unskilled categories have been combined on the Indonesia SRT.

l/ The Unidentified, Unclassified or Other category has been included where available for illustrative purposes. It has not been included in the subsequent analysis of new occupational groups.

Note:

The following symbols have been used to denote work status:

(F) employed by family member,
(O) employed by someone outside the family,
(S) self-employed with no employees, and
(E) self-employed with employees.

Table II.3 Ranks of Special Socio-economic Status Indicator Variables by Occupation for Four Countries

Occupation	Thailand	Sri Lanka	Malaysia	Korea
Professional				
Education/Income	2/1	1/1	1/2	1/-
Durables	-	-	1	1
Standard of living	1	1	-	-
Clerical				
Education/Income	1/4	2/2	2/1	2/-
Durables	-	-	2	2
Standard of living	2	4	-	-
Sales				
Education/Income	4/2	4/3	4/5	4/-
Durables	-	-	3	3
Standard of living	3	2	-	-
Farm				
Education/Income	7/7	6/4	8/8	8/-
Durables	-	-	8	6
Standard of living	7	6	-	-
Agriculture				
Education/Income	8/8	8/8	7/7	7/-
Durables	-	-	7	7
Standard of living	8	8	-	-
Household [a/]				
Education/Income	(3)/(8)	(6)/(5)		
Durables				
Standard of living	(9)	(1)		
Service [b/]				
Education/Income	3/6	3/5	3/3	3/-
Durables	-	-	4	4
Standard of living	4	5	-	-
Skilled				
Education/Income	5/3	5/6	5/4	5/-
Durables	-	-	5	5
Standard of living	5	3	-	-
Unskilled				
Education/Income	6/5	7/7	6/6	6/-
Durables	-	-	6	8
Standard of living	6	7	-	-

Table II.3 (continued)

Occupation	Thailand	Sri Lanka	Malaysia	Korea
Unidentified [c]				
Education/Income		-/(8)	(1)/-	
Durables			(7)	
Standard of living		(8)		
No Work [d]				
Education/Income	(4)/(8)		(5)/-	(3)/-
Durables			(9)	(5)
Standard of living	(6)	(3)		

Notes:

a/ Due to very small cell sizes, figures shown in parentheses are included purely for illutstrative purposes. There are no men in this category in Korea, and this category is not separated from Service in Malaysia.

b/ The Service category for Malaysia also includes Household workers.

c/ Due to small cell sizes, this information is not always available, nor is this category included for all countries, the numbers in parentheses are included for illustrative purposes.

d/ Due to small cell sizes, the figures in parentheses are included simply for illustrative purposes, non-working men do not have values on income in Sri Lanka and Malaysia.

Table II.4. Summary Statistics for Husbands/Partners Occupation, New Coding

Occupation	Panama	Colombia	Peru	Guyana	Sri Lanka	Jordan	Thailand	Korea	Indonesia	Malaysia
Group I. Modern										
Per cent of all men	17.8	10.7	16.2	16.8	11.4	18.1	9.4	16.7	7.8	13.2
Urban ratio	1.47	1.47	1.45	1.70	2.01	1.23	3.18	1.35	2.15	1.84
1st Work Status	93(0)	81(0)	89(0)	94(0)	90(0)	90(0)	a/	88(0)	96(0)	92(0)
2nd Work Status	6(S)	11(S)	10(S)	4(S)	10(S)	9(S)	a/	12(S)	3(S)	8(S)
Education Rank	1	1	1	1	1	1	1 a/	1	1	1
Income/Std. Rank					1/1		1/1 a/	1		1/1
Resp. Age at Mrg.	21.2	20.1	21.0	19.3	22.5	18.6	21.1	21.1	18.3	20.1
Rank	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
CEB: Dur. Std.	3.16	3.28	3.55	3.25	3.29	4.83	3.13	3.11	3.83	3.59
Work St. Std.	2.93	2.99	3.12	2.94	3.11	4.31	a/	3.06	3.30	
Rank b/	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1/2	4/1	1
NCD: Dur. Std.	3.86	3.51	3.54	4.18	3.36	5.34	3.31	2.94	4.29	4.08
Rank	1	1	2	2	1	1	1	1	3	1
Per cent using: Dur.Std.	79.1	75.9	61.2	43.1	53.0	61.9	63.5	59.3	51.6	59.6
Rank	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Group II. Transitional										
Per cent of all men	19.4	16.5	14.9	4.8	16.3	39.1	10.4	16.9	18.3	18.1
Urban Ratio	1.29	1.44	1.36	1.38	1.63	0.89	2.12	1.41	1.94	1.49
1st Work Status	78(0)	50(S)	52(S)	53(S)	50(0)	72(0)	a/	68(S)	57(S)	54(0)
2nd Work Status	20(S)	48(0)	46(0)	41(0)	49(S)	21(S)	a/	30(S)	40(0)	44(S)
Education Rank	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	2
Income/Std. Rank					2/2		2/2	2		2/2
Resp. Age at Mrg.	20.0	19.4	19.9	18.6	20.0	16.8	19.9	20.1	16.3	19.2
Rank	2	3	2	2	2	3	2	3	3	3
CEB: Dur. Std.	3.68	3.79	4.29	3.86	3.90	5.40	3.63	3.24	3.62	3.91
Work Status Std.	3.51	3.42	4.03	3.90	3.45	5.46	a/	2.99	3.60	
Rank b/	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2/2	2/4	2
NCD: Dur. Std.	4.20	3.89	3.42	4.05	3.49	6.54	3.40	3.02	4.30	4.21
Rank	3	2	3	1	3	3	3	2	4	2
Per cent using: Dur.Std.	68.8	60.5	56.1	42.8	49.2	31.9	58.0	51.5	31.4	53.4
Rank	3	2	2	2	2	3	2	2	3	2

a/ The work status variable for husbands occupation on the Thailand SRT has a problem of an undefined nature, and we have been instructed by WFS not to use it. We cannot, therefore, use it as a basis for standardization either.

Table II.4 (continued)

Occupation	Panama	Colombia	Peru	Guyana	Sri Lanka	Jordan	Thailand	Korea	Indonesia	Malaysia
Group III. Skilled										
Per cent of all men	37.0	35.1	28.8	42.8	29.4	34.3	17.4	31.4	16.6	30.3
Urban Ratio	1.19	1.38	1.34	0.99	1.40	1.16	1.93	1.36	2.03	1.33
1st Work Status	79(0)	69(0)	67(0)	84(0)	78(0)	64(0)	a/	72(0)	66(0)	84(0)
2nd Work Status	20(S)	26(S)	31(S)	14(S)	21(S)	33(S)	a/	26(S)	32(0)	16(S)
Education Rank	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	2	3
Income/Std. Rank					3/3		3/3	3		3/3
Resp. Age at Mrg.	19.6	19.8	19.0	17.7	19.2	17.0	19.4	20.3	16.4	19.2
Rank	3	2	3	3	3	2	3	2	2	3
CEB: Dur. Std.	3.96	4.11	4.42	4.02	3.91	5.51	3.66	3.40	3.65	4.19
Work St. Std.	3.96	4.07	4.36	4.10	3.88	5.51	a/	3.33	3.47	
Rank b/	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3/3	3/2	3
NCD: Dur. Std.	4.11	3.96	3.50	4.36	3.72	6.32	3.39	3.05	4.28	4.37
Rank	2	3	1	4	2	2	2	3	2	3
Per cent using: Dur. Std.	69.0	58.9	48.4	35.6	45.0	36.1	56.0	44.4	33.4	45.9
Rank	2	3	3	3	3	2	3	3	2	2
Group IV. Traditional										
Per cent of all men	25.6	47.4	38.7	34.0	41.8	17.8	62.5	34.2	56.1	37.5
Urban Ratio	0.18	0.32	0.41	0.60	0.19	0.32	0.12	0.30	0.15	0.19
1st Work Status	68(S)	49(S)	74(S)	71(0)	57(S)	59(S)	a/	83(S)	59(S)	53(S)
2nd Work Status	30(0)	44(0)	21(0)	26(S)	42(0)	39(0)	a/	12(0)	32(0)	43(0)
Education Rank	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Income/Std. Rank					4/4		4/4	4		4/4
Resp. Age at Mrg.	18.0	19.0	18.8	17.1	18.2	16.4	18.9	18.8	15.8	17.4
Rank	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
CEB: Dur. Std.	4.73	4.88	4.99	4.32	4.13	5.61	4.14	4.01	3.32	4.00
Work St. Std.	5.24	5.10	5.48	4.32	4.27	6.57	a/	4.50	3.48	
Rank b/	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4/4	1/3	4
NCD: Dur. Std.	4.54	4.42	4.16	4.29	3.95	7.39	3.86	3.52	4.02	4.63
Rank	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	1	4
Per cent using: Dur. Std	47.3	33.2	18.9	35.5	32.5	10.0	37.0	37.1	36.2	30.1
Rank	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4

Note: a/ The work status variable for husbands occupation on the Thailand SRT has a problem of an undefined nature, and we have been instructed by WFS not to use it. We cannot, therefore, use it as a basis for standardization either.

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b/ For all countries except Korea and Indonesia, there is no change in rank when CEB is standardized for work status, as opposed to marital duration. In these two countries, however, a change does occur, and this is noted in the table by including both ranks, separated by a slash. The first rank is based on marital duration, and the second is based on work status.

Note:

The following symbols have been used to denote work status:

(O) employed by someone outside the family,

(S) self-employed category - combining self-employed with no employees and with employees.

APPENDIX III

Note on Husbands' Work Status

APPENDIX III

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Note on the Work Status Variable

In Table II.4 for each new occupational group, the number of children ever born, was standardized for work status. In this Appendix, a graph for each country depicting the mean number of children ever born by work status and new occupational group is presented. This information has been included because it points out a very important factor having to do with husband's economic activity. Specifically, it appears that work status is an important aspect of husband's work in and of itself, and can interact with occupation in some countries.

Although the rank ordering of occupations with respect to children ever born does not change when standardized for work status, the mean CEB standardized for work status is often quite different from that standardized for marital duration. In Group I, for example, the work status standardized mean is considerably lower in all countries than is the duration standardized mean. The differences are mixed and not quite so striking for Groups II and III, but the general pattern is for the work status standardized means to be lower than the duration standardized means. For Group IV, however, the work status standardized means are much higher than the duration standardized means in all countries except Guyana. In other words, if all the occupational groups within each country had the same work status

distribution as the country as a whole, the difference in mean children ever born between the Modern Group and the Agricultural Group would be much greater than if they all had the same marital duration distributions.

The graphs shown in Figures 1 through 3 are interesting as well. Although this analysis is just suggestive, and these means have not been controlled for any age-structure effects, the fact nonetheless emerges that work status is an important element of husband's economic activity. Figure 1, for example, shows that in Panama work status and occupation tend to interact. That is, for occupational Groups I and II, men employed by family members (admittedly a small proportion of the total) tend to have a higher level of fertility than those employed by someone outside the family. For Groups III and IV, on the other hand, those employed by family members have lower fertility than those either employed by someone outside the family or who are self-employed. In addition, for Groups I, II and IV, self-employed men have higher fertility (note that for Group I it is considerably higher) than those employed by someone outside the family, but for Group III the reverse is true.

One overall impression gained from these figures, is that self-employed men tend to have higher levels of fertility than those employed by someone outside the family or by a family member. This generalization holds rather well for all countries with the notable exception of Indonesia, where the

pattern is somewhat reversed. Here the self-employed men, in three out of the four occupations, have lower fertility than those employed by someone outside the family, but still have higher levels than those employed by family members.

In conclusion, it can be said that the work status variable is one to be reckoned with in subsequent analysis. It may even be advisable to construct some sort of composite variable which includes both occupation and work status. This, of course, would imply a variable with more categories, which may not be desirable for cross-tabulations. Instead work status might be controlled by investigating occupational effects within work status groups or by standardizing for work status within occupational groups. In regression analysis, work status dummy variables should be included on equations containing occupation.

Figure III.1 Children ever born by husband/partners work status and New Occupational Codes: Colombia, Panama and Peru

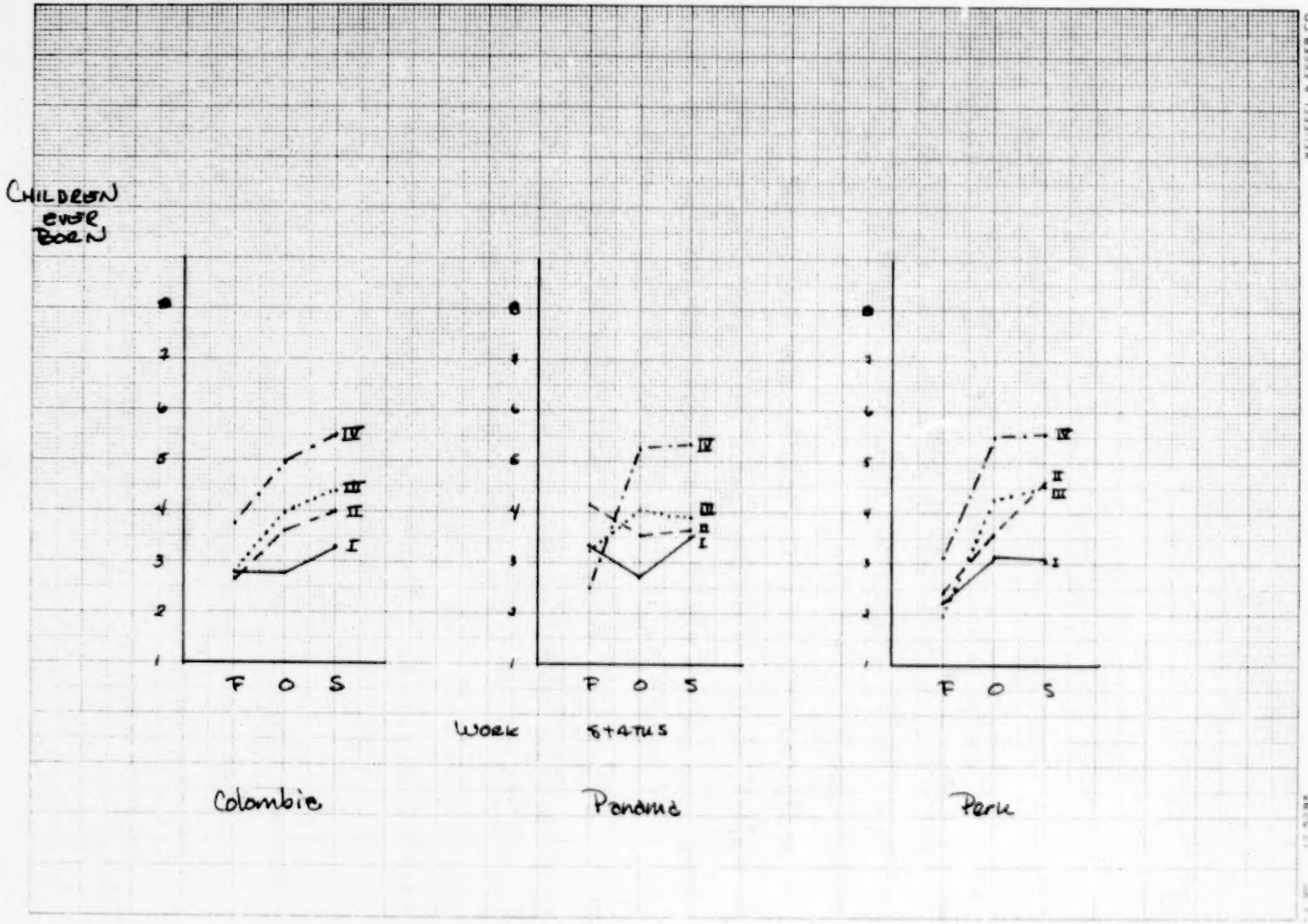
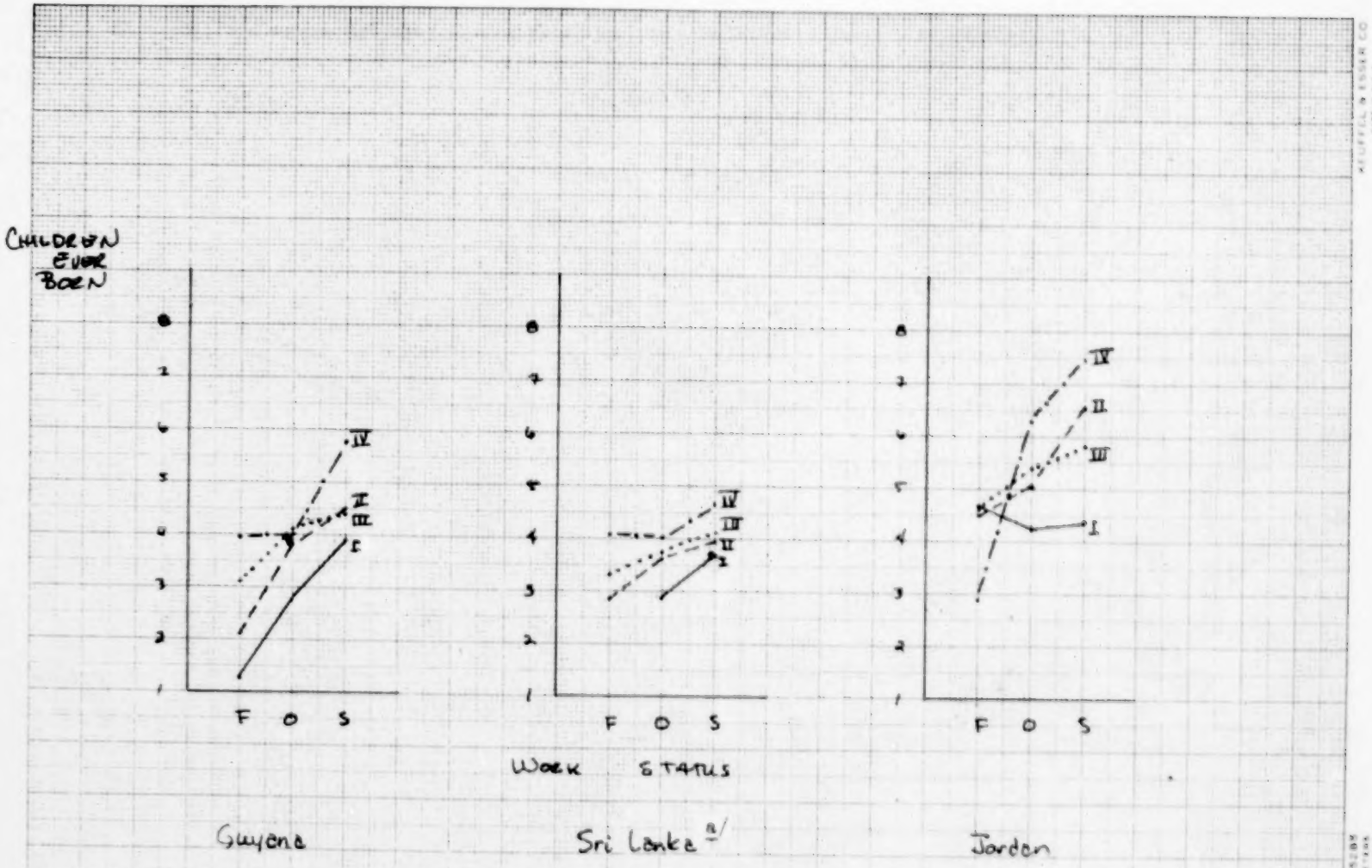
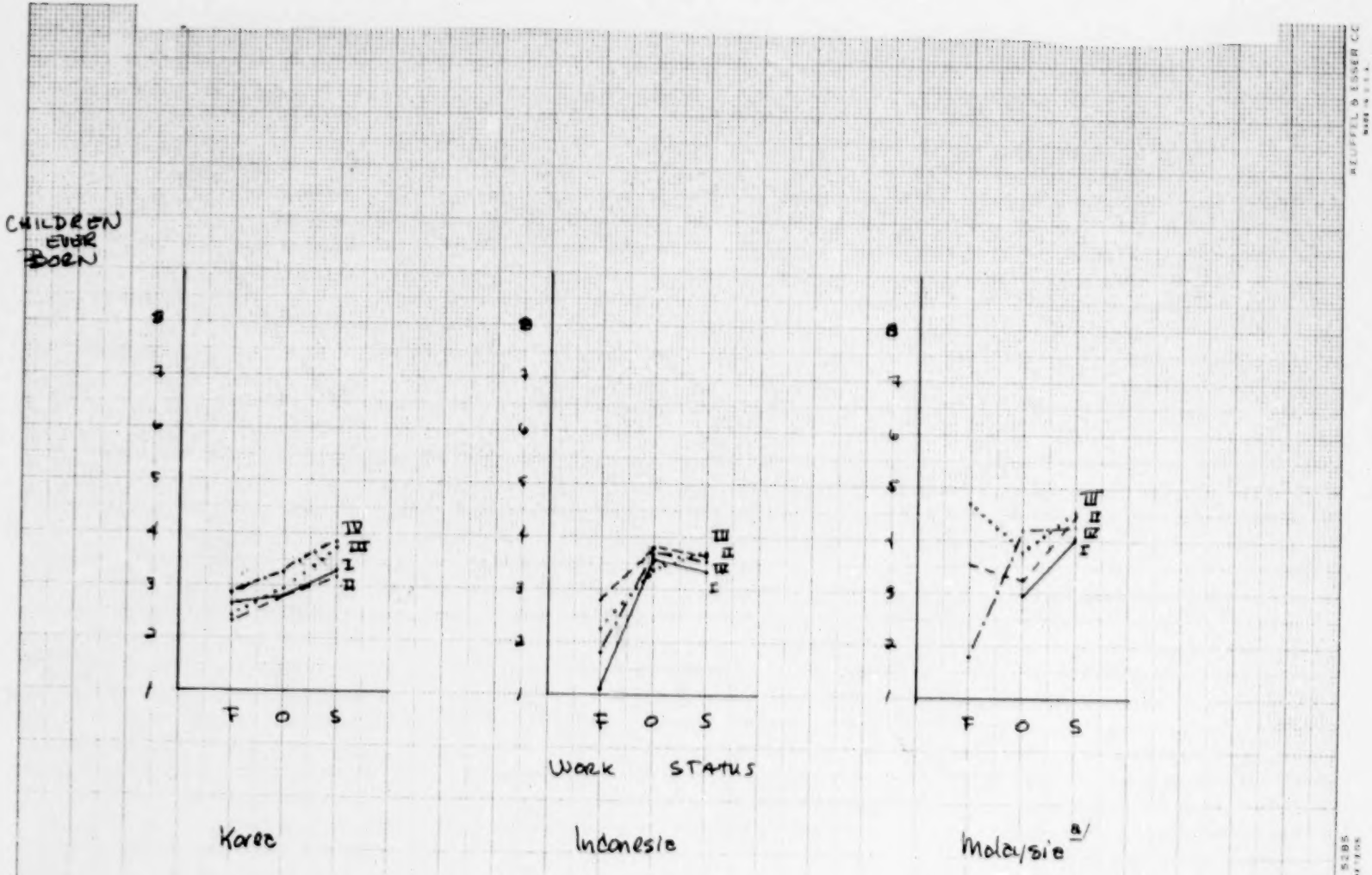


Figure III.2 Children ever born by husbands/partners work status and New Occupational Codes: Guyana, Sri Lanka and Jordan



a/ There are no men employed by family members in occupational Group I in Sri Lanka.

Figure III.3 Children ever born by husbands/partners work status and New Occupational Codes: Korea, Indonesia and Malaysia



a/ There are no men employed by family members in occupational Group I in Malaysia.

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